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BY

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A M E R I C A,

HISTORICAL, STATISTICAL, AND DESCRIPTIVE.

CHAPTER I.

Early History of the Settlement of Albany.—First Voyage of Hudson up the North River.—Foundation of the Fort and City of Albany.—Collisions of the Dutch with the English.—Grant of the Territory by Charles II. to the Duke of York.—Surrender of Albany to the British.—Increase of Population by the Decennial Census.—Causes of the rapid Prosperity of Albany.—Size in Area, and Extent in Resources, of the State.—Comparison of Surface with England and Wales.—Vast Scale of the United States of America.—Increase of Population in the State of New-York.—Probable Augmentation of Territory and Inhabitants.—State Canals: Length, Cost, and Profits on them.—Railroads: Extent and Cost.—Early Corporation Records of Albany.—Latest Commercial and Manufacturing Statistics.—Agricultural Statistics.—Increase in the Banks of the State of New-York, of each Kind.—Statistics of Education; Amount of Funds.—Topography of Albany.—Site and Position.—Plan and Arrangement of Streets and Squares.—Contrast between ancient and modern Houses.—Shops or Stores, Hotels and Boarding-houses.

ALBANY ranks among the very earliest settlements of the Europeans on the Continent of North America, having been first settled by the Dutch so early as the year 1612. It was but three years before this, 1609, that the celebrated English navigator, Hudson, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, set sail from the Texel in Holland, in search of a northwest passage to India. He was unable to accomplish this object, and on abandoning it as impracticable, he steered southward, and entering the bay of the Chesapeake, there saw the first settlement of the English at Jamestown, in Virginia. He afterward sailed for the Delaware, off which he anchored, and proceeded from thence to Long Island, entered the bay of New-York, and sailed up the North River, as it was first named, or Hudson, as it is now called after its first discoverer.

While we were on our passage up from New-York to Albany, I was repeatedly led to consider what must have been the feelings of the intrepid commander and his enterprising crew at the scenes of beauty and fertility which were perpetually opening upon their sight during their advance up the stream, which they had every reason to believe that they were the first among Europeans to see and admire. Their delight must have been excessive; and the enthusiasm and triumph of the moment must have been worth a year of peril to purchase.

It is said that, though at the first entrance of Hudson into the Bay of New-York, some of the tribes then occupying Long Island evinced their hostility to his farther progress by attacks in which

some of his men were killed and others wounded, yet that, as he advanced up the river, he found the Indians less hostile; expressing, by looks and signs, their disposition to give him welcome, and testifying their friendly spirit by presents of fruits and flowers.

The report which Hudson and his companions gave, when they returned to Holland, of the size and character of the river, induced the Dutch merchants to form an association for opening a traffic upon it; and the Dutch government granted to this association a monopoly of this trade for a certain period. It was by this company that the first settlement was formed where Albany now stands, on a spot then called by the Indians Schaunaugh-ta-da, or Once the Pine Plains. The Dutch here built a fort, which was commanded by Henry Christaens. It was first called Aurania till 1620, then Beverwick till 1625, then Fort Orange till 1647, and then Williamstadt till 1664. It was at once a fort and a factory of trade, and, like other places of this description, advanced gradually in population and commerce.

It is worthy of remark, that the English Puritans who first settled in Massachusetts originally intended to have sailed from Leyden, where they were in exile in 1620, for the Hudson River, on whose banks they contemplated making their home. But the Dutch, anxious to prevent any English settlers intruding upon their own colonists, and at the same time unwilling to make any formal opposition to their voyage for fear of offending the British, are said to have bribed the Dutch captain, in whose ship they embarked from Holland, to carry them so far to the northward that they could not reach the river; and hence their first landing and settlement was made on the coast of Massachusetts.

It was in 1621 that the foundation of the city of Albany was first laid by the Dutch West India Company, who about the same time founded the City of New Amsterdam on the island of Manhattan, where New-York now stands. The Dutch settlers at Albany extended themselves gradually from hence eastward into Connecticut, and coming there into collision with the English, disputes arose among them on subjects sufficiently trivial and ludicrous. A formal record of the alleged grievances was kept by the Dutch, and Mr. Grahame has preserved, in a note to his interesting and valuable history, an extract from this chronicle, in which, as he truly says, "the insignificance of many of these complaints, and the homeliness of the subject matter of others, contrast somewhat ludicrously with the pompousness of the titles and the bitter gravity of the style." Among them are the following:

April 25, 1640.—Those of Hartford have not only usurped and taken in the lands of Connecticut, but have also beaten the servants of their High Mightinesses and the honoured Company with sticks and ploughstaves—in hostile manner—laming them; and, among the rest, struck Ever Deukings a hole in his head with a stick, so that the blood ran very strongly down his body."

"June 24, 1641.—Some of Hartford have taken a hog out of the common, and shut it up out of mere hate or other prejudice, causing it to starve for hunger in the sty."

"May 20, 1642.—The English of Hartford have violently cut loose a horse of the honoured Company that stood bound upon the common."

"May 23, 1642.—The said English did again drive the Company's hogs from the common into the village and pounded them."

"September 16, 1642.—Again they sold a young pig which had pastured on the Company's lands."*

While these grievances were complained of by the Dutch, the same historian records a curious ground of complaint against the latter, and the Swedes, who had settled parts of the country, with them. It was said that several of the Indians attended the religious assemblies of the Europeans, "but with so little edification that they expressed their amazement at the ill-breeding of the orator who could exercise the patience of his tribe with such lengthened harangues without repaying their civility by a distribution of brandy."

In 1664, Charles II., most unjustly seeking to provoke the Dutch into a war, asserted a claim to the whole of their settlements on the Hudson, under the title of the New Netherlands, and made a grant, by charter, of the territory then actually occupied by the Dutch to his brother, the Duke of York. Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor, when he heard of this, and of the subsequent intention to enforce the claim by arms, put himself in the best posture of defence he could; and when he received the summons of the English commander to surrender, communicated to him by a deputation, after remonstrating with him in vain as to their unjust pretensions, he ended by saying, "As touching the threats in your conclusion, we have nothing to answer, only that we fear nothing but what God (who is as just as merciful) shall lay upon us, all things being in his gracious disposal; and we may be as well preserved by him with small forces as by a great army: which makes us to wish you all happiness and prosperity, and recommend you to his protection." The issue was, however, the ultimate surrender of New-York and Albany to the British authorities, which took place in October, 1664; and in 1667 the territory was formally ceded by the Dutch to the British, in exchange for the colony of Surinam, which the Dutch had taken from the English.

The increase of population in Albany, from the earliest period at which any census appears to have been taken, up to 1830, the last year of the decennial numbering of the people, may be seen from the following figures: In 1790 it was 3498; in 1800, 5349; in 1810, 9356; in 1820, 12,630; in 1830, 24,238. At present it is thought to exceed 30,000; and by 1840, the next year of the census, will probably be 40,000, more than ten times its numbers fifty years ago.

* Grahame's History of the United States, vol. ii., p. 165.

The rapid prosperity of Albany is not so much to be attributed to the fact of its being the legislative capital of the State of New-York, for which its position is well adapted, as to the advantage it enjoys as the chief port of *entrepôt* for almost all the exports and imports of the great maritime emporium at the mouth of its river, New-York. This was the case to a certain extent before the opening of the internal canals; but since these great channels have opened a highway from the Hudson to the lakes of the West, and by them to the noble rivers Ohio and Mississippi, down to the Gulf of Mexico, and by the Arkansas and Red River to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, while Lake Champlain extends its water-carriage towards the banks of the St. Lawrence, and the Hudson opens a way to the Atlantic; since these united advantages have been enjoyed by Albany, her wealth and population have grown with greatly increased rapidity; and the names of De Witt Clinton, the first projector of the internal communication, and of Fulton, the originator of steam navigation, are justly held in the highest veneration in the spot so much benefited by their joint labours.

The State of New-York, of which Albany is the capital, is called by all Americans the Empire State, from its territorial extent, its vast resources, its enlarged commerce, its population, and consequent legislative influence. Its territory is 316 miles in length and 304 miles in breadth. It contains 47,000 square miles, or 31,080,000 acres. It is therefore larger in area than England, Wales, and the Isle of Man united, as these are computed by Arrowsmith, in his Geography, to contain only 43,990 square miles. The vastness of the scale of the United States of America may be judged of from this fact, that this one single state out of twenty-six, of which the whole Union is now composed, is larger than England and Wales; while nearly half the other states are equal to it in size, and some of them, as Virginia, are still larger. The length of the territory belonging to the United States, and over which the government of Washington has lawful jurisdiction, is 3000 miles, from Passamaquoddy, in Maine, to the shores of the Pacific; and its extreme breadth, from the Lake of the Woods in the north to the southern point of Florida, 1700 miles; so that it has an outline or border of about 10,000 miles in extent, and contains within its area the immense surface of 2,300,000 square miles, or more than fifty times the area of England and Wales, as given before. When it is considered that this vast territory is washed on nearly all its borders by the Atlantic or Pacific Oceans; that its lakes are the most extensive and its rivers the largest in the world; that it has every variety of soil and climate in the several zones it fills; and that there is no country upon earth in which facilities of communication, by railroad and steamboat, are so great as in this; that education is more general, in-

dustry more active, and that the whole of the existing generation are improving the resources of the country for those who are to follow them, there are hardly any bounds to the expectations that may be formed of its future greatness if wisely and discreetly governed, and if kept free from the great scourges of society—luxury, intemperance, and war.

The increase of population in the State of New-York is shown by the following numbers at each of the indicated periods of census :

In 1701	30,000	In 1749	100,000
1731	50,395	1771	163,000

This was the slow rate at which the population of the state increased anterior to the revolution, and while it was merely a British colony, ruled by authorities at a distance from the scene. The change, after it became an independent country, is remarkable, as will be seen by the following :

In 1790	340,120	In 1820	1,372,812
1800	586,050	1825	1,616,458
1810	959,049	1830	1,918,608

Of the population of 1830, the following is a more detailed analysis :

White males	951,516	Free coloured males	21,465
White females	916,670	Free coloured females	23,404
Deaf and dumb	842	Male slaves	12
Blind	642	Female slaves	34
Aliens	52,488		
Total whites	1,922,158	Total coloured	44,915

There is every reason to believe that in two years hence, at the census of 1840, the population of the state will be nearly, if not quite, three millions ; but even this, though just one hundred times more than it was in 1701, is but a handful compared to what it might, and no doubt will, sustain in less than a century hence, when its 3,000,000 will be increased to 20,000,000, for which there are ample resources in the agriculture, manufactures, mining, and commerce of the state. It is not at all improbable but that, including the inhabitants of other portions of this great country, our posterity will see the United States of America embracing the Canadas on the north, Mexico on the south, and touching the Pacific on the west, with a population greater than that of all Europe, and an advance in the arts, sciences, and useful improvements of life such as no nation has ever yet witnessed.

The public canals of the State of New-York, undertaken at the expense of the State Government, including the Erie Canal to the west, the Champlain Canal to the north, and their respective auxiliaries and feeders, of all of which Albany may be regarded as the principal port of inlet and outlet, extend over a length of 655 miles ; they have 343 locks, with 3037 feet of lockage. Their ac-

tual cost was 11,962,712 dollars, or about 2,500,000/. sterling; and the tolls received on them in 1836 were 1,614,336 dollars, or about 323,000/. sterling, being more than 12 per cent. of profit on the actual outlay.

But this is still farther improving, as by an official report on the tolls and trade of the State Canals, published during our stay in Albany, in the government paper, the Argus, of the date of July 7, 1838, the following gratifying facts were made known:

"CANAL TOLLS.—The tolls received on the New-York State Canals for the week ending 7th July, 1838, were 36,682 dollars, being an increase of 26 per cent. on the previous year. The flour and wheat arriving at the Hudson River, *via* the Erie Canal, for the same period, were 28,950 bushels of flour, and 13,296 bushels of wheat; being an increase of 15,861 bushels of flour, and 12,296 bushels of wheat over the previous year."

TOLLS ON THE STATE CANALS.—The tolls collected on the New-York State Canals for the fourth week of June amount to the sum of 47,123 dollars, exceeding the receipts for the corresponding week in 1837 by the sum of 15,034 dollars. The tolls for the whole month of June exceed the collections in the same month in 1837 by about 37 per cent.

From the opening of navigation to the close of June there has been received for canal tolls the sum of 516,081 dollars. This exceeds the collections up to the same time in 1837 by the sum of 119,966 dollars.

The quantity of merchandise cleared from Albany and Troy from the opening of navigation to the close of June for the present year, shows an increase, comparing this year with last, of 5223 tons of merchandise, equal to 16 per cent. Besides the merchandise cleared on the canals, there has passed over the railroad this season 1526 tons.

The increase of flour and wheat this year over last is equal to 139,216 barrels of flour, or about 79 per cent. There has been brought to tide-water on the railroad, not embraced in the foregoing, 12,421 barrels of flour. While the merchandise going from tide-water has increased 16 per cent., the tolls paid on products generally have increased 30 per cent.; and on flour and wheat the increase is 79 per cent.

The quantity of flour and wheat shipped at Buffalo from the opening of canal navigation to the 30th of June for the present year, shows an increase of 225 per cent. over the previous one. The tolls received at the collector's office at Buffalo from the opening of navigation to the 30th of June for the year 1838, shows an increase of 119 per cent.

LOCKAGES ON THE ERIE CANAL.—A statement has been furnished of the lockages for the month of June, 1838, at Lock No. 26 on the Erie Canal, which shows that 70 cribs and 3349 boats passed

this lock during the month, averaging 114 lockages per day. This is an increase of 1491 lockages over June, 1837.

SALT DUTIES.—The amount received by the superintendent of the Onondago Salt Springs for the last three years, in the months of May and June, is as follows, viz.: in 1836, 16,291 dollars; in 1837, 22,365 dollars; and in 1838, 38,123 dollars; being an increase in 1837 over 1836 of $25\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and of 1838 over 1837 of $72\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Besides these State Canals, there are a great many others in progress, the estimated cost of which will exceed three millions of dollars, and canals by incorporated companies which will cost upward of two millions of dollars more.

Of railroads in this state there have been as many as 29 executed by incorporated companies, from 1820 to 1836, at a cost of 12,000,000 dollars, or nearly three millions sterling, extending over a length of 670 miles; and these, too, are still increasing, and all returning a remunerating profit.

The records respecting the early history of Albany are very scanty, and the field of the antiquary is consequently very limited. In a journal called the Schenectady Reflector, some extracts are given from the earliest minutes of the Albany corporation, of which the following are examples:

CITY OF ALBANY.—We present a few extracts from the earliest minutes of the Albany city corporation.

In 1746 the corporation ordered 6*l.* to be paid to John Bell, "the city whipper," for six months' services.

In 1747 they direct a receipt to be signed by their clerk "for half a barrel of powder received from Sybrant G. Van Schaick, in lieu of the powder he borrowed from the corporation when the governor was here last."

In 1748 they ordered "Mr. Santvoort to pay Robert Lottridge for two gallons of wine that Mr. Miller bought upon the corporation account when the governor came."

These and many similar orders demonstrate that our Dutch burghers were good and faithful subjects to their English governors, besides paying a pretty good salary to their city whipper.

Such are the trivial and unimportant incidents recorded in the minutes, and selected by the Reflector as interesting to the antiquary. The modern details announce more important facts, and show, as strikingly as anything can do, the contrast between the old times and the new, in the history of this country at least. Let the returns here given be received as proofs.

In the State of New-York, as we learn from the official records, there were, in the year 1835, the latest period to which the returns have been completed (and every one considers the number of most of them to have increased rather than otherwise since then), the following:

	Number.	Value of raw materials used.	Value of articles made.
Grist Mills	2,051	\$17,687,009	\$20,140,435
Saw Mills	6,948	3,651,153	6,881,055
Oil Mills	71	214,813	275,574
Fulling Mills	965	1,994,491	2,894,096
Carding Machines	1,061	2,179,414	2,651,638
Cotton Factories	111	1,630,352	3,030,709
Woollen Factories	334	1,450,825	2,433,192
Iron Works	293	2,366,065	4,349,949
Trip Hammers	141	168,896	363,581
Distilleries	337	2,278,420	3,098,042
Asheries	693	434,394	726,418
Glass Factories	13	163,312	448,559
Rope do.	63	664,394	980,083
Chain Cable do.	2	20,871	28,625
Oil Cloth do.	24	63,119	95,646
Dying and Printing do.	15	1,999,000	2,465,600
Clover Mills	69	95,693	110,025
Paper Mills	70	358,857	685,784
Tanneries	412	3,563,592	5,598,626
Breweries	94	916,252	1,381,446
<i>Articles made in Families.</i>			
2,183,951 yds. of Fulled Cloth	}	value 1,500,000	2,029,984
2,790,069 do. Woollens			
3,799,953 do. Linen and Cotton			
Total		43,400,922	60,669,097

The only branch in which there has been a decrease, and that must be regarded as a blessing rather than a loss, is in that of distilleries and breweries. Of the former there were, not many years ago, upward of 1200. By the operations of the Temperance Societies these have been reduced to 337, the number given in the above table; and the gain to the country, in converting grain to wholesome and nutritious food, instead of distilling from it a poisonous and destroying drink, is unequivocal; as is also the conversion of barley and fruits into food for cattle, instead of their fermentation into beer and cider. The amount of animal nourishment is thus greatly increased, and the amount of intoxication and all its deleterious consequences are in an equal degree diminished.

Other branches of manufactures have sprung up, too, since 1835, which are not enumerated in the list given; and, among others, that of silk and beaver hats, which in the last year, 1837, were made to the value of four millions of dollars, or 800,000*l.* sterling.

The agricultural statistics of the State of New-York are as encouraging as those of its manufactures, showing a progressive increase and improvement in every department, as the following table will exhibit:

Estimated value of Improved Lands and Live-stock in the State of New-York, by the census of 1835, compared with the same in 1825 :

9,655,426 Acres of Improved Land .	\$25	\$241,385,650	\$179,024,175
1,885,771 Neat Cattle	10	18,857,710	15,134,210
524,895 Horses	50	26,244,750	17,481,400
4,261,765 Sheep	1½	6,392,647	5,244,808
1,554,358 Hogs	3	4,663,074	4,403,719
Total		\$297,543,831	221,288,312
Do. in 1825		221,288,312	
Increase		\$76,255,519	

The banks existing in this state have always been regarded as the safest and best secured in the Union; and they have fully sustained their reputation by their being the first of all the banks in the country to resume specie payments, which is now sustained by the whole of them. The most recent official statement respecting their number and condition is that made by the commissioners appointed for that purpose by the Legislature in May, 1837, of which the following is an authentic copy :

NEW-YORK SAFETY-FUND BANKS.

The following statement is furnished by the Bank Commissioners for the purpose of showing the general condition of the Banks as compared with their condition on the 1st of January, 1837 :

Eighteen New-York City Banks.

	1st Jan.	4th May.
Loans and discounts	\$36,442,000	\$35,683,000
Specie	3,854,000	2,596,000
Circulation	8,155,000	4,931,000
Individual deposits	11,180,000	9,536,000
United States ditto	7,176,000	3,820,000

Sixty-three Country Banks.

	1st Jan.	10th May.
Loans and discounts	\$26,979,000	\$26,822,000
Specie	1,439,000	1,100,000
Circulation	12,461,000	9,601,000

From this table it will be perceived that the city banks had, previous to the suspension, reduced their discounts, since 1st of January, about 800,000 dollars, and their circulation nearly *three millions and a quarter*.

NEW-YORK STATE BANKS AND CIRCULATION.

The charters of the Lockport Bank, capital 100,000 dollars, and the Sackett's Harbour Bank, capital 200,000 dollars, having been repealed by the Legislature at the session of 1837, the present banking capital of the state is 37,301,460 dollars, of which the capitals of nine banks, 5,100,000 dollars, are not subject to the safety-fund act.

The amount of circulation, authorized by the suspension act of May, 1837, is as follows :

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	Capital.	Circulation.
24 New-York City Banks	\$20,861,200	\$14,100,000
75 Country Banks	16,440,260	15,430,000
Total	\$37,301,460	\$29,530,000

The most gratifying part, however, of the statistics of this flourishing state is that which relates to its appropriations for education. Of colleges for superior and professional learning, there are, in the State of New-York, Columbia College and the new University in the City of New-York, Union College in Schenectady, Hamilton College in Clinton, and two medical colleges, one in the city of New-York, and the other in Fairfield, Herkimer county. But, besides the support of these, which are well sustained, there is a fund of about 200,000 dollars devoted to the assistance of academies; and no less a sum than a million of dollars is expended annually in support of the Common Schools for the education of youth. Of this sum, one tenth is paid by the state from its school-fund; one tenth is paid by a tax for education on the towns; and two tenths by a similar tax on the property of the several school districts, making four tenths raised or furnished by the state; while the other six tenths, or better half, is cheerfully paid by the parents and guardians of the scholars. It was in the City of Albany that that useful work, the "Common School Assistant," a monthly newspaper devoted to the advancement and improvement of education, was first established; and some of the wealthiest men of the state are still among the most munificent patrons of the system of Common School education.

Of the topography of this city, the legislative capital of the Empire State, it may be said that its site is well chosen, being on the west bank of the River Hudson, with the lower portion of the city on a slightly-ascending plain, near the stream, which makes it commodious for the transaction of business; while the gradually-ascending angle by which it at length attains a steep ascent, and terminates in a lofty and commanding hill, is also favourable to the imposing appearance of the city on approaching it, to the display of its public buildings at different degrees of elevation, to the convenience of the more opulent inhabitants, who desire spacious and airy situations for their dwellings, and also to the general cleanliness and consequent salubrity of every part of the town.

The plan of arrangement and subdivision is not so regular as many of the American cities, but, like New-York and Baltimore, while its older parts are remarkably irregular, all its more modern laying out is as symmetrical as could be desired. The principal street, which ascends from the banks of the river and terminates at the foot of the Capitol on the hill, is a noble avenue of at least 120 feet in breadth; Market-street and Pearl-street, by which this is intersected at right angles, as these streets run nearly parallel to the

river, are also as fine streets as can be desired, of ample breadth, from 80 to 100 feet, shaded on each side by rows of trees, and containing many spacious and excellent mansions, interspersed with places of worship and public buildings, which produce a most agreeable effect.

Here and there are some striking contrasts, to impress on the spectator the difference which a century has made in the style of building and scale of domestic comfort. The house we occupied, at the southeast corner of Pearl and Steuben streets, was a most commodious and delightful mansion; it had formerly been the residence of the late governor, De Witt Clinton, and was equal in size and accommodation to some of the best houses in Baker-street, Harley-street, or other similar streets in the northwest of London. Next door to us was the residence of Governor Marcy, the present governor of the state; and next to him was a new mansion, belonging to the President of the Albany Bank, Mr. W. Olcott, as well-finished and fine a building as could be seen in any part of the world—indeed, a sumptuous abode; while on the opposite or north side of the street were, in addition to the noble private dwellings, the two projecting Ionic porticoes of the Female Academy and the Baptist Church, which, with the graceful dome and turret of the latter, made a most beautiful architectural picture, which even an inhabitant of Rome, or Venice, or Genoa would admire.

In contrast with all this, however, there stood at the northeast corner of Pearl and Steuben streets, and right opposite the house we dwelt in, a Dutch burgher's residence, bearing the date of 1732; its yellow and ill-cemented bricks, its small windows and doors, its low body, and immensely disproportioned sloping roof, covered with tiles of all shapes and fashions, showing what description of city Albany was likely to have been a century ago, and enabling one to judge of the amazing advance in opulence, taste, and comfort which had been made since that humble dwelling had been first reared; in this respect, the occasional presence of such relics as landmarks, or indexes of the progress of time, and corresponding progress of improvement, is useful, and nowhere more so than in this country.

In the laying out of the new or upper part of the city, care has been taken to appropriate some portion of the space to public squares for the recreation and health of the population; and public baths are spoken of as being likely to be undertaken by the city authorities.

The shops, or stores, as they are here universally called, are not equal to those of any of the larger cities we had visited except Washington, which are decidedly inferior to those of Albany; but there are well-furnished warehouses here of almost everything needed, and an air of great activity and bustle prevails in the principal business streets.

The hotels are not many in number, but they are on a large scale, and have the reputation of being among the most comfortable in the country. Of the boarding-houses we heard also a very favourable account; and if they at all resembled the one in which we had the good fortune to be placed, they must be of the best description, as we had found nothing so much like a comfortable English home as the house of Mrs. Lockwood, at 59 Pearl-street, where we remained for several weeks, and enjoyed ample accommodation in rooms, good fare, and, above all, great kindness and courtesy, and genteel and agreeable society. There is a large temperance hotel in North Market-street, well furnished, supplied with baths, and conducted, as we had heard from competent and impartial authorities, in a manner to afford great satisfaction to all who frequented it.

CHAPTER II.

Government of the State, Legislative and Executive.—Extent and Costs of the public Establishments.—Liberal Appropriations for Education.—Examples of American Rulers as to Education.—Penn, Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe.—Question as to the Connexion of Ignorance and Crime.—Extracts from the Letter of Dr. Lieber on this Subject.—Opinions of the Keepers of Penitentiaries and Jails.—Testimony of Mr. Wood, of the Philadelphia Prison.—Testimony of Mr. Wiltse, of the Singing Prison.—Testimony of Mr. Smith, of the Auburn State-prison.—Testimony of Mr. Pillsbury, of the Connecticut State-prison.—Contrast of the Legislatures of England and America.—Albany Academy for the Education of Male Youths.—Albany Female Academy.—Issue of the Experiment of Female Education.—Great Defect in the Want of physical Training.—Supposed gradual Decline in the Health of Females.—Causes which contribute to this in America.

THE government of the State of New-York, which is seated at Albany, is composed of a legislative and an executive body, assisted by an extensive judiciary. The legislative body comprises a House of Representatives, consisting of 128 members, chosen every two years by the people, and a Senate, consisting of thirty-two members, eight of whom, or one fourth of the whole, are chosen annually; so that the longest period of their service without re-election is four years. The pay of the members of both houses is the same, namely, three dollars per day.

The executive consists of a governor, elected every year, at a salary of 4000 dollars; a lieutenant-governor, who is, ex-officio, president of the Senate, and receives six dollars per day during the session; a comptroller at 2500 dollars a year, and two deputy-comptrollers at 1500 dollars each per annum; a treasurer at 1500 dollars, and a deputy-treasurer at 1300 dollars yearly; an attorney-general at 1000 dollars; a surveyor-general at 800 dollars; and a secretary of state, who is also superintendent of common

schools, or a minister of public instruction for the state, at 1750 dollars, with a deputy-secretary, who is also clerk of the commissioners of the law office, at 1500 dollars a year. There are also four acting canal commissioners and three bank commissioners, at 2000 dollars a year each; and these together constitute what is here called "The Regency," or effective force of the executive; the entire cost of which is only 31,350 dollars, or about 6270*l*. sterling: scarcely equal to the retiring pension of a single lord-chancellor or a single speaker of the House of Commons in England. The whole expense, indeed, of the government of this large state, greater in area than England and Wales, and with more than three millions of people, including the legislative, executive, and judiciary, the army and police, is not greater than the cost to England of any one of her numerous colonies in the Eastern or Western world.

One of the certain consequences of making the government in harmony with the public sentiment is the absence of any disposition to rebellion; and as the people here have always a remedy in their own hands against any oppressive measure in the exercise of the electoral franchise, by which they can change their representatives, senators, and governors at fixed periods, if not satisfied with their administration, there is consequently no fear of insurrection, and neither fleets nor armies are necessary to overawe or check them. The best government is that which, while it affords ample protection to the persons and property of all those living under it, exacts the smallest portion of the labour or capital of the people to defray its expenses.

The judiciary consists of a Court of Chancery, with a chancellor and three assistants, their whole salaries being only 3000 dollars, or about 600*l*. per annum; a Supreme Court, with three judges and a registrar, whose united salaries are 8000 dollars, or 1600*l*. a year; a Superior Court for the City of New-York, with three judges and a registrar, whose united salaries are 7500 dollars a year; and eight Circuit Courts, with a presiding judge in each; the whole cost of the eight courts, at 1600 dollars each, being 12,800 dollars, or 2560*l*. sterling per annum.

While the expense of the general government in its legislative, executive, and judicial apartments is thus light, it is pleasing to see how wisely and judiciously the resources of the state are applied to the diffusion and support of education; the conviction being strong and general here, that ignorance and intemperance are the chief causes of crime; and that the most efficient, as well as the most economical way of preventing crime, is to instruct the people, and teach them that their true interest lies in being industrious, sober, and virtuous. The latest statistics in the appropriation of the school-fund of the State of New-York is the following:

COMMON SCHOOLS.

Amount of the Common School Fund, Sept. 30, 1836 . . .	\$1,917,494.17
Number of school districts in 853 towns of the state . . .	10,207
Number of school districts that made returns in 1836 . . .	9,696
Number of children taught in districts returned . . .	532,167
Number of children between 5 and 15 or 16 in those districts	583,396

Expenses of the Common School System in 1836.

Public money distributed among the towns	\$313,376.91
Amount paid for teachers' wages, besides public money . . .	425,643.61
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Paid for teachers' wages	739,020.52
Interest at 6 per cent. on 2,183,200 dollars invested in schoolhouses	130,992.00
Annual expense for books for 532,167 scholars, at 50 cents each	266,083.50
Fuel for 9916 schoolhouses, at 10 dollars each	99,160.00
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Total	1,235,256.02

While Great Britain is behind both France and Prussia in conveying the advantages, or granting funds for the support, of a good system of national education, and her successive administrations have received with coldness and neglect every proposition for devoting the funds of the state to the establishment of such a general system as should embrace the very poorest classes, under some vague fear that they would become wiser than was desirable for persons in their sphere of life, the first settlers of America, and all its subsequent rulers and persons in authority, have been from the very beginning so uniformly impressed with the importance of educating the rising generation, that they have almost all placed their testimony on record on this subject. The following are only a few of such instances:

William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, uses this language in one of his addresses to his council: "That which makes a good constitution must keep it, namely, men of wisdom and virtue; qualities that, because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth. Above all things," he adds, "endeavour to bring up children in the love of virtue: sweetness mixed with gravity, and cheerfulness tempered with sobriety. For their learning, let it be liberal. Spare no cost; for by such parsimony all is lost that is saved; but let it be useful knowledge, such as is consistent with truth and godliness. It is commendable in the nobles of Germany that they have all their children instructed in some useful occupation. We are too careless of posterity, not considering that as they are, so the next generation will be. If we would amend the world, we should amend ourselves; and teach our children to be, not what we are, but what they should be."

George Washington, the first president of the United States, in his first annual speech to Congress, January 8, 1790, thus earnestly recommends education: "There is nothing that can better deserve our patronage than the promotion of science and literature. Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness, and in one in which the measures of government receive their impression so immediately from the sense of the community as in ours, it is proportionably essential. To the security of a free constitution it contributes in various ways. By convincing those who are intrusted with the public administration that every laudable end of government is best answered by the enlightened confidence of the people, and by teaching the people themselves to know and to value their own rights, to discern and provide against invasions of them, to distinguish between oppression and the exercise of lawful authority, between burdens arising from a disregard to their inconvenience, and those resulting from the inevitable exigences of society, to discriminate the spirit of liberty from that of licentiousness, cherishing the first, avoiding the last, and uniting a speedy but temperate vigilance against encroachment, with an inviolable respect to the laws."

Washington, in his farewell address also, thus advises his fellow-citizens: "Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

John Adams, the second president of the United States, animated by the same spirit, says in his inaugural address, "I am a friend to all rational measures for propagating knowledge among all classes of people. I wish success to the project of free libraries. A republican government without knowledge and virtue is a body without a soul, a mass of corruption and putrefaction, food for worms."

Thomas Jefferson, the third president, breathes the same sentiment when he says, "By far the most important bill in our own code is that for diffusing knowledge among the people. No other sure foundation can be devised for the preservation of freedom and happiness. Make a crusade against ignorance; establish and improve the law for educating the common people."

James Madison, the fourth president, in his message to Congress dated December 5, 1810, uses this language: "While it is universally admitted that a well-instructed people alone can be a permanently free people, and while it is evident that the means of diffusing and improving useful knowledge form so small a proportion of the expenditures for national purposes, I cannot presume it to be unreasonable to invite your attention to the advantage of superadding to the means of education provided by the several states, an institution supported by the national Legislature, which, by enlightening the opinions, expanding the patriotism, and assimilating

the principles, the sentiments, and manners of those who resorted to it would contribute not less to strengthen the foundation than to adorn the structure of our free and happy form of government."

James Monroe, the fifth president, in his inaugural speech delivered on the 4th of March, 1817, after enumerating the progress made since the revolution, and the prosperous state of public affairs, says, "Such, then, being the highly-favoured condition of our country, it is the interest of every citizen to maintain it. What are the dangers which menace us? If any exist, they ought to be ascertained and guarded against. In explaining my sentiments on this subject, it may be asked, What has raised us to the present happy state? How did we accomplish the revolution? How remedy the defects of the first instrument of our Union, by infusing into the government sufficient power for national purposes, without impairing the just rights of the states or affecting those of individuals? How sustain and pass with glory through the last war? The government has been in the hands of the people. To the people, therefore, and to the faithful and able depositories of their trust, is the credit due. Had the people of the United States been educated in different principles; had they been less intelligent, less independent, or less virtuous, can it be believed that we should have maintained the same steady and consistent career, or been blessed with the same success? It is only when the people become ignorant and corrupt—when they degenerate into a populace, that they are incapable of exercising the sovereignty. Usurpation is then an easy attainment, and usurpers soon found. The people themselves become the willing instruments of their own debasement and ruin. Let us look, then, to the great cause, and endeavour to preserve it in full force. Let us, by all wise and constitutional measures, promote intelligence among the people as the best means of preserving our liberties."

John Quincy Adams, the sixth president, differs in no respect from his predecessors in office as to the importance of public institutions, supported at the expense of the state, for promoting education; and in his message to Congress, dated December 6, 1835, he says: "The great object of the institution of civil government is the improvement of the condition of those who are parties to the social compact. And no government, in whatever form instituted, can accomplish the lawful ends of its institution but in proportion as it improves the condition of those over whom it is established. Moral, political, intellectual improvement, are duties assigned by the Author of our existence to social, no less than individual man. For the fulfilment of these duties, governments are invested with power; and to the attainment of the end, viz., the progressive improvement of the condition of the governed, the exercise of delegated power is a duty as sacred and indispensable as the usurpation of power not granted is criminal and odious. Among the first, per-

haps the very first, instruments for the improvement of the condition of men is knowledge; and to the acquisition of much of the knowledge adapted to the wants, the comforts, and enjoyments of human life, public institutions and seminaries of learning are essential."

Here, then, is a continued and unbroken chain of evidence as to the sentiments entertained and recommendations offered by the first six presidents of the United States, in favour of public support for institutions of general education. The same uniformity of opinion is to be found among the citizens of all the separate states as to its importance; and there is no tax or contribution paid by the people more readily or cheerfully than that for education, of which they are so sure to reap the full benefit.

The question of how far ignorance is the great producer of crime, and to what extent education operates in preventing it, is one of the most important, perhaps, that can engage the attention of man; yet, like most other questions connected with human improvement, it has been greatly perplexed by controversy. One of the most satisfactory and convincing publications that I have yet seen upon this subject is from the pen of Francis Lieber, LL.D., in a letter addressed to the President of the Philadelphia Society for alleviating the miseries of public prisons; and, as the work is not likely to be familiar to many in England, the importance of its statements will well warrant my transferring a few of its passages to these pages, of which the following are examples:

"In the British House of Lords as well as Commons, it has been stated that education is far from causing a decrease of crime, and the United States have been adduced as instances of this pretended fact. In one case it has been asserted that official information had been obtained from the City of New-York which would amply prove it. On the other hand, some remarks of Messrs. De Beaumont and De Tocqueville, contained in their work on the Penitentiary System in the United States, on the apparent increase of crime in the State of Connecticut, have been referred to as equally confirming the statement, which, if true, would disappoint the promoters of public instruction in one of their fondest hopes.

"It appeared to me that, though many individuals would be inclined to dismiss these assertions without farther consideration, since long experience has convinced them of a different result, it would nevertheless be desirable that a convincing statement to the contrary should be given to the public, both here and in Europe, if we are at all able to do so. The assertions are serious; the consequences which their truth would involve, of an alarming character; the impression which they might produce, very obnoxious in an age when, in many countries, greater efforts are making to establish general education than at any previous period, and when, on the other hand, the result at which some of the most distinguished and acute statistical writers have arrived apparently corroborate the above unfavourable remarks.

"Knowledge in itself is neither good nor bad; it has no moral character of its own; and in the translation of the work of Messrs. De Beaumont and De Tocqueville, which I have already mentioned, I have said: 'In this sense, knowledge is, in itself, in most cases, neither good nor

bad; arithmetic will assist a defaulter as much as an industrious man who works for his family, as a knife may serve the murderer as well as him who cuts a piece of bread with it for a crippled beggar; just as the sun lends his light to crime as to virtue.' But if we come to speak of public instruction, knowledge does not retain so entirely an indifferent character.

"It has been often remarked that instruction, without the careful cultivation of the heart and religious instruction, leads to moral mischief, rather than to good effects. This is undoubtedly true; but in practice the remark applies more, I believe, to schools of a higher character than to what is called a general or popular school system. Times have existed when the religious cultivation of the heart—I do not only speak of religious instruction—was greatly neglected in schools where the sciences were taught with peculiar success. But this disproportion does not so often exist in elementary schools, such as are established by a general school system, for all the classes in the least favoured situations. I believe there is hardly a school, even the meanest, in which the child does not receive some moral instruction, were it but in a secondary way. A teacher cannot help enforcing some moral rules by way of keeping order in his schoolroom, nor can the lessons which the children have to read and to learn remain without instilling some moral precepts into the mind, or disposing it better for the reception of moral and religious views. Secondly, there is in all knowledge, even the most indifferent as to moral effect, for instance, arithmetic, a softening power, which renders the mind more pliable; and, however inferior it may be in itself, it forms one more link which connects the individual with the society in which he lives. But the more we can cultivate this feeling of our being linked to a society of moral beings, and to a nation which is not of to-day, but in which we have to perform our duties as every one else, and the more we can prevent the future growth of a feeling of separation from society, or, with which, in fact, this feeling often ends in its natural progress, of opposition to the rest of society, the more we shall also prevent the various acts of selfishness, of absorbing egotism, of crime. It is for this reason, among others, that the instruction in our political duties ought to form a branch of instruction in all schools. Let us teach and convince every one that he forms an integral part of the community, upon the faithful performance of whose duties its welfare partially depends, and we shall increase his self-esteem, and thereby afford him one of the best preservatives against crime.

"The best preservatives against crime will always be a well-trained mind, early application, and industrious habits, together with good example. There is, I believe, no person who has had an opportunity of various and thorough observation of criminals, who will not agree with me on this point, and it is easy to judge how much a sound school education contributes to a regular training of the youthful mind.

"That a universal school system ought never to be wanting in a proper instruction in morals and the cultivation of religious feelings, as well as instruction in political virtue and morality, is as true as that no system of general education will produce all the good effects which it ought to produce without proper care being taken for the education of teachers. These are truths acknowledged in those countries where public instruction has most prospered. But there are so many subjects of high interest connected with public instruction, that I should exceed the limits within which I must confine these observations were I even but briefly to touch upon them.

"All I have stated so far is as yet but general assertion, however plausible it may appear. How are we, then, to test its truth? By compa-

ring the proportion between crime and population, since public instruction has been established in a given country, to that which before existed! I have already shown the fallacy of this test in most cases, and I must extend my remark. The increase of crime, or, in other words, the increase of indictments (because most generally some crime has been committed by some one where there is an indictment), is unfitted to serve as a test of the increased criminality of a community, if we are not enabled, by a number of concurrent statements, to judge more precisely of the case. Sometimes the police has become more vigilant; sometimes the laws have been made more proportionate to the crime, and the judges are more willing to convict; sometimes a great influx of destitute persons has taken place; at others, public attention has been roused, and directed to certain crimes until then neglected; an army may have been disbanded; a winter has been peculiarly severe; a famine may have existed; money transactions may have offered new opportunities, &c.; in short, a number of causes, some of which are continually exercising their influence upon mankind, may have existed without the least connexion with public instruction; nay, the latter may have continued to exercise its beneficial influence during the whole time that crime was increasing, and may actually have prevented it from still greater increase.

"Whether crime in our Union has in general, of late, increased or not, I am not able to say. If impressions in matters of this kind were worth anything, I would say that my impression is, that certain crimes, more especially murder, have either increased, or it has become more common with editors of newspapers to mention the details of every murder, in whatever quarter of the Union it may have been committed. Wherever the truth may lie, certain it is that this ready reception of accounts of atrocious deeds is pernicious in a great many respects. It satisfies one of the worst cravings of the human mind, and affects it, in turn, in the same way in which physical stimulants and exciting liquors satisfy, and, in turn, ruin the body; it has a tendency to render the reader callous; and it has a positive and evil effect upon criminally-disposed persons. The power of imitation is incalculable, universal, and often operates by imperceptible degrees. Our newspapers ought certainly not to be silent on the various crimes which are committed, for it is equally important that the true state of things be known; but it strikes me that it would be both beneficial to the people at large and becoming to the vocation of editors were they to state but the simple facts of atrocious crimes, and leave their detailed accounts to those papers which avowedly collect the statements of misdeeds, and appear stamped on their very face in a way which makes every honourable reader flee them. It would be certainly a wise measure if the editors of some of our most respectable papers would set the example, and agree to abstain in future from publishing detailed accounts of barbarous crimes.

"One of the most active causes in producing crime in our country is intemperance. An immense majority of all murders are either committed during intoxication, or in consequence of quarrels or misery brought on by intemperance. And if crimes of an atrocious nature have increased of late, it will probably be found, by minute inquiry, that it is in a great measure owing to the increase of intemperance, which some years ago took place, and which is now showing its melancholy effects on the intemperate themselves, as well as on those who, in the mean time, have grown up with such pernicious examples before them.

"Though this letter be not the precise place for the following remark, I nevertheless cannot refrain from making it, since it seems to me of the greatest importance that universal attention be directed to the subject;

namely, the immoderate use of opium in various shapes, chiefly by way of laudanum, in families, and especially with infants, without the advice of proper physicians. My inquiries into the subject have led me to the conviction that innumerable parents create in their children that diseased craving for stimulants which, with so many individuals, ends in open and violent intemperance, and with many more in a constant use of ardent spirits, not much less injurious in its consequence. The united efforts of medical gentlemen, as of all those who are in the habit of instructing the people on important points, might produce a great change towards the better.

"Intemperance, however, which on all hands is admitted as the most fruitful source of crime in our country, will be certainly counteracted in a degree by universally-spread education, for the reasons already mentioned; namely, because it trains and regulates the mind, connects the individual with stronger links to society, informs him in regard to his duties towards the Creator, the society he lives in, and towards himself and his family, and assists in producing self-respect.

"The facts which have lately appeared from the inquiries instituted in England as to the extent and consequences of intemperance in that country, the statements collected by Mr. Caspar as to intemperance in Prussia, and many details given to the public by Mr. Quetelet with regard to intemperance in France, show that the remark I have just made is also applicable to those countries.

"But is there no test, then, by which we may ascertain whether universal education tends to prevent crime, or whether ignorance promotes it? It seems to me that there is a means by which we may solve this question to the satisfaction of every fair inquirer, namely, by ascertaining the degree of education which every convict has obtained. If we should find that, in a country in which few individuals grow up without some school instruction, an immense majority of convicts are men who have not received a fair school education; if thus ignorance almost always accompanies crime; and if, at the same time, it is easy to account for a connexion between the two on general and simple grounds, drawn from the nature of our mind and of human society in general, I think we are authorized to conclude that there actually does exist a necessary connexion between the two, and that by diffusing knowledge of a moral and scientific character we may hope for a decrease of crime, and be assured that though crime may in reality or apparently have increased for some reason, it would have increased still more without general education.

"The greatest circumspection, indeed, is necessary in drawing conclusions from statistical statements. Many opinions, apparently founded in reality, have currently been believed for many years, and, in the end, been found to be erroneous. But if, as I have stated, repeated facts agree with the conclusions at which we would arrive in the most cautious way of reasoning by analogy, and on principles which are always considered to hold; and if, in particular, our conclusions are corroborated by those individuals who, before all others, have a sound and practical knowledge of criminals, it would seem that we may adopt the result thus arrived at as truth.

"There is no warden or superintendent of any penitentiary of note with which I am acquainted, who does not consider want of education and ignorance as some of the most active agents in producing crime; and if there be any subject connected with education, or any affairs of human society respecting which the knowledge of practical men is indispensable, or reasoning on which, without ample knowledge of facts, is more gratuitous, that subject is prison discipline and the true charac-

ter of convicts. But, as will be seen from the following letters, there is but one opinion among these gentlemen.

"When I first saw the statements to which I have alluded at the beginning of this letter, I directed a series of queries to the wardens of our most prominent penitentiaries, and received from nearly all of them the readiest answers, not indeed always on all of my questions. This would have taken, in some cases, too much time; yet the statements with which the gentlemen favoured me are quite sufficient to prove that not only education, but instruction even in the most elementary knowledge, is very deficient in most convicts.

"As Mr. Wood, the warden of our Eastern Penitentiary, has given the answer on a number of my queries in his last report on the penitentiary under his charge to the Board of Inspectors, I shall give an extract from that quarter.

"As to the three other letters, they are too valuable not to be given without curtailment. They prove once more the facts, that, 1. Deficient education, early loss of parents, and consequent neglect, are some of the most fruitful sources of crime. 2. That few convicts have ever learned a regular trade, and, if they were bound to any apprenticeship, they have abandoned it before the time had lawfully expired. 3. That school education is, with most convicts, very deficient or entirely wanting. 4. That intemperance, very often the consequence of loose education, is a most appalling source of crime. 5. That by preventing intemperance, and by promoting education, we are authorized to believe that we shall prevent crime in a considerable degree."

The extract from Mr. Wood's report, to which Dr. Lieber refers, has the following concluding paragraph:

"There are among mankind some who have been liberally educated and carefully superintended during their youth, who nevertheless become abandoned, and we see others without these advantages rise to the first stations in society; yet the disproportion is great. I therefore believe that, had the two hundred and nineteen convicts above mentioned received a suitable education, both moral and physical, and been placed with good masters until twenty-one years of age, to learn some practical business, where they would be taught industry, economy, and morality, instead of spending their youth as they have, few of them would ever have been the inmates of a prison. All philanthropists agree that the best mode of preventing crime is properly to educate youth."

The agent of the Sing Sing prison, Mr. Wiltse, in his reply to Dr. Lieber's inquiry, says, "Whatever may be the fact in other countries, there can be little doubt that education and early application to some kind of business would have a powerful tendency to decrease crime. From my long intimacy with criminals, I have found that a large majority of convictions may be traced to the formation of bad habits in early life, from a total neglect on the part of their parents or guardians in giving them education, and confining their attention to some systematic business."

The Rev. Mr. Smith, the chaplain of the Auburn State-prison, states that, out of 670 prisoners, there were only three that had received a collegiate education, and eight that had received an academical education; and all the remainder had received only a very

poor education, or none at all. Of the same 670, only 8 were total abstinent, 159 were moderate drinkers, and 503 were intemperate drinkers; while 402 had committed their crimes under the actual influence of spirituous liquors, and 257 had had intemperate parents.

Mr. Pillsbury, the warden of Connecticut State-prison, answered the inquiries addressed to him by saying, "The whole number of convicts in Connecticut State-prison is 180. No convict here has ever received either a college or classical education, nor has any one of such education ever been an inmate of this prison. The chaplain, who from 1827 to 1830 was acquainted with nearly 1000 convicts in the State-prison at Singing, and with many other convicts in the prisons of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Auburn, had never known a liberally-educated convict in prison." He then states that, of 100 convicts who came to the prison, the usual proportion is not more than eight who can read, write, and cipher; 75 in 100 acknowledged themselves to be habitual drunkards; and 44 in 100 admitted that they had committed their crimes while under the excitement of liquor; while there was not a single convict among all the number who before his conviction could read and write, was of temperate habits, and followed a regular trade.

This last fact is as important as any that has been stated, and deserves especial notice, as well as the concluding paragraph of Mr. Pillsbury's reply, which seems to remove altogether the erroneous impression created, of an increase of crime corresponding to an increased extension of education. He says,

"Since the prison has been established in this place, some seven or eight years ago, the number of convicts has considerably increased, and hence the French commissioners and English gentlemen may have naturally inferred that there must have been an increase of crime in equal proportion. But the truth of this matter seems to lie here. As soon as the new prison was built, the criminal code was revised, and alterations made so as to punish a larger number of offences with confinement in the state-prison. Besides, because the discipline of the prison was thought to have a strong tendency to reform those who came under its influence, and as such economy was used as to make the labour of the convicts more than meet the expenses of the whole establishment, the courts in the different counties were more than ever before inclined to sentence individuals to the state-prison for the same offences. For some time past there has been a very manifest decrease in this state in the instances both of crime and convictions. Ever since last January there has been a diminution of at least twenty in the number of convicts."

Who is there, after this mass of evidence as to ignorance and intemperance being the chief causes of crime, that will not admire and commend the rulers and legislators of America for doing their utmost to promote education and temperance; and, at the same time, lament that Great Britain, with all the superior advantage of centuries of previous civilization, should be behind her own daughter, America, in this respect?

Many will remember the difficulty with which the comparatively small sum of 20,000*l.* was wrung from the ministry of England for the building of schoolhouses; wherever the population of the district would furnish an equal amount to that which they required from the public funds; while in the State of New-York alone the amount of the Common School fund is nearly two millions of dollars, of which nearly one million is paid yearly for teachers' wages, and the rest expended in the erection of schoolhouses, purchases of books, and supplies of fuel.

Many persons will also remember the opposition made by the government of England even to the appointment of a committee of inquiry as to the evils inflicted on the country by intemperance; and the ridicule attempted to be thrown on every proposition for restricting the number of spirit-sellers, or placing the traffic under such restraints as would lessen its evils to the poorer classes of society; while in America, the legislatures of Tennessee and Massachusetts have already passed laws prohibiting entirely the sale of ardent spirits in any quantities less than fifteen gallons to one person at a time, by which all tippling-houses and dramshops are extinguished at a single blow, and the traffic restricted only to the dealers in large quantities, by which more than half the evils occasioned by intemperance are removed; and the example of these states will, it is believed, be speedily followed by others.

In connexion with the state of education in Albany, it should be mentioned that, in addition to an ample number of the common schools for the general instruction of the humbler classes, and Sunday-schools attached to every church in the city, there are two first-rate institutions, one called "the Albany Academy," for the education of male youths only, and the other called "the Albany Female Academy."

The Albany Academy was first instituted by the municipal body of the city about the year 1813, and the munificent grant of 100,000 dollars was made from the city funds for the purpose of erecting the building. This is a large and substantial edifice of stone, with a centre and two wings, occupying a front of 90 feet, of three stories in height; the centre is surmounted by a turret or small steeple, and the whole is surrounded by an open space of green lawn. Its position is advantageous and commanding, occupying a portion of the hill on the north, while the Capitol occupies a corresponding site on the same hill on the south, with the great avenue of Washington-street running between them.

The mayor and recorder of the city are trustees ex-officio, to whom are added others from the gentry and clergy of the city, to the number of sixteen in all, and these constitute the governing body of the institution.

The faculty consists of the principal, a professor of Latin and Greek, a professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, a pro-

fessor of English literature, and a professor of modern languages; to which are added, the assistants and tutors in each department, and these are bound to adhere to the printed statutes, of which a copy is put into the hands of every student on entering.

The students are admitted from the age of six years and upward, and are taught such branches of learning as their parents or guardians may prescribe. For this purpose, the course of tuition is divided into four branches. In the fourth class or department, the one into which the pupil first enters, he is taught reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, natural history, and general history. In the third class are taught the higher branches of geography, and grammatical construction of style, in prose and verse, the belles lettres, and elements of criticism, and exercises in composition and declamation. In the second class are taught the higher branches of arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra, mathematics, natural philosophy, architecture, mathematical geography, and drawing. In the first class are taught Latin and Greek, Roman and Grecian antiquities, mythology, ancient history, and biography.

The expense of each pupil, of which there are now about 300 in the several classes, is as follows: 28 dollars per annum for the first class; 20 dollars per annum for the second and third class; and 16 dollars per annum for the fourth class; and, as the building was provided by the funds of the State, it is found that this low scale of expense, from £3 3s. to £5 12s. per annum, is quite sufficient to remunerate handsomely the principal, the professors, and the tutors, besides admitting the gratuitous education of a certain number of the best scholars of the common or district schools, who are selected from year to year, according to their merit, by the trustees of the institution.

The Albany Female Academy was commenced about the year 1817. The funds for its establishment were raised in shares of proprietors, amounting to 30,000 dollars; with this a very fine and commodious building was erected in North Pearl-street, where its noble projecting portico of the Ionic order, the pillars of which are about 6 feet in diameter and 50 feet in height, add greatly to the architectural beauty of the street. This institution was intended to give to female youths all the advantages of the best classical and mathematical education which is afforded in other institutions to male youths only; and its whole arrangement is well adapted to this end.

It is under the government of thirteen trustees, who are elected annually by the stockholders, and who, according to the charter, for both of these academies are incorporated, have the general management of its affairs. Its officers are a president, secretary, and treasurer; and its faculty consists of a professor of mental philosophy and rhetoric, a professor of natural philosophy, chymistry, and botany, a professor of the French and Spanish languages,

and a professor of elocution and composition ; in addition to which are teachers of sacred music, of the organ, harp, and piano-forte, of drawing, and of Latin and Greek.

There is a large and well-chosen library attached to the institution, with maps, charts, globes, models, and an excellent chymical and philosophical apparatus. It contains, also, a cabinet of specimens in natural history, mineralogy, and botany ; and the principal, Dr. Campbell, who lectures on Biblical and Jewish antiquities, and the professor who lectures on physiology, have each an extensive set of well-executed transparent drawings for the illustration of their respective subjects.

There are two classes of pupils : those who come from the country, and board with the family of the principal or with the teachers, and those whose families reside in town. The former consist of about 140, and the expense of their board and education is from 200 to 225 dollars per annum. The number of the latter is about 250, and the cost of their education is from 12 to 32 dollars per annum, according to the class in which they may be ; the lowest or sixth class being three dollars per quarter, and the highest or first class being eight dollars per quarter.

This experiment, which has now been continued for upward of twenty years, has proved abundantly what many still affect to disbelieve or doubt, that the female intellect is in no degree whatever inferior in its capacity to receive and retain instruction in the highest and most difficult branches of learning to the male ; that their powers of application and their zeal for information are also quite equal to those of the other sex ; and that such differences as have hitherto existed between the intellectual condition of male and female youths have been wholly owing to their being subjected to different modes of education.

The same defect which belongs to every plan of scholastic training that I have yet witnessed, characterizes this ; namely, that no portion of time seems to be allotted to physical training. There is neither walking, riding, gymnastics, nor any other fixed and regular exercises for the body. The consequence is, that among the 400 pupils of the Academy there did not seem a single example of vigorous or robust health. Slender forms, pale cheeks, and feeble physical powers were the general characteristics ; while the constant drain upon the mental powers, in the study of most of the subjects taught in the Academy, and particularly in geometry and the mathematics, tended still more to enfeeble frames of great delicacy, and was calculated, as it seemed to me, to shorten life, as well as to make that portion which remained less healthy for the individuals themselves, and less favourable for their offspring, than if they had two or three hours less of learning per day, and two or three hours of walking, riding, or gymnastic exercises, suited to their years and sex, in the open air.

It is a very general belief among the more elderly people of America, that the present race of female youths are greatly inferior in physical stamina to the preceding generation ; and, considering the mode of life they lead, with little or no systematic plan of exercise in the open air ; with very early and severe application to studies while at school ; corresponding early introduction into life, passing from 15 to 17 amid the late hours and dissipation of fashionable parties, thinly clad, and especially during the most inclement parts of the winter ; early marriages, from 16 to 18, and early bearing of children, with the drain upon the strength of nursing ; insufficient sleep, ill-prepared food, hasty and unmaستicated meals, profusion of pastry, sweet-cakes, and ice-creams, which destroy the appetite for more simple and more nourishing food, and require frequent recourse to medicine ; it is hardly to be wondered at, when all these deteriorating causes are considered, and their accumulated force from generation to generation taken into account, that the effect should be a declining stamina in every succeeding race.

CHAPTER III.

Religious Establishments in Albany.—Number of Churches possessed by each Sect.—Proportion of the whole Population attending Worship.—Liberal Support of the Clergy or Ministry.—Beneficial Effects of the Voluntary System.—Anecdote of a noble Lord in America.—Sunday-schools and Teachers in Albany.—Most ancient Churches of the City.—Public Buildings : the Capitol, the City Hall, the new State Hall.—Newspapers of Albany, Number and Character.—Specimens of political partisan Warfare.—Pugilistic Encounter in the Hall of Congress.—Causes of the excessive Irritability of Southern Members.—Parallel Influences on the British in India.—The same in naval Officers of all Nations.

NEXT to the establishments for education, those for religious worship deserve attention ; and these are here, as everywhere that we had yet visited, numerous, well furnished, and well sustained. The Methodists have the greatest number of churches, there being six belonging to that body of Christians. The Presbyterians come next, having five churches. The Dutch Reformed Religion has three, and the Baptist three. The Episcopalians have two, St. Peter's and St. Paul's ; the Catholics have two, one of them a very fine building ; and the German Lutherans, the Universalists, and the Quakers one each. There are thus 24 large churches, containing in the whole, perhaps, accommodation in seats for 24,000 persons out of a population of 30,000, of which, taking into account the infants, the very aged, the sick, and the infirm, there will be always at least 6000, or one fifth that could not attend public wor-

ship ; so that the means of religious observances are amply sufficient for every individual who could possibly profit by them ; and it is believed that at least 20,000 persons out of the 30,000 do really attend the places of public worship on the Sabbath in Albany.

The contrast which this offers to England is very remarkable. I have seen estimates by which it appeared that not more than one in one hundred attended public worship in London ; and I think that in Norwich, where the churches are very numerous, and much zeal exerted to procure attendance, not more than twelve in one hundred, or about an eighth of the whole population, frequented any church. It is probable that in no part of England is there accommodation in the churches or chapels of the towns or districts for one half the population of such places ; and it is doubtful whether there is any town in England in which one third of the entire population really attend regularly any place of worship ; while here at Albany two thirds of the whole community are found in attendance in one or other of the churches every Sunday.

The whole of these establishments are sustained by the voluntary system of support ; each congregation first choosing, and then maintaining, its own pastor, which they do with great liberality, no minister receiving less than 1000 dollars or 200*l.* per annum as regular stipend, besides presents at baptisms, weddings, &c., sometimes equal, on the whole, to the salary itself ; and others receiving 2000 dollars per annum, with the same additional perquisites ; the scale of which may be inferred from the fact that, while we were at Albany, a marriage was solemnized between two members of the same congregation, and a present of 500 dollars or 100*l.* was sent to the minister on this occasion. The voluntary system of supporting religion, while it is certainly more agreeable to the parties who have to make the payments, is, on the whole, more uniformly beneficial to those who are paid, as the average incomes of religious teachers in America greatly exceeds the average incomes of the established clergy in England. Besides this, it leads to great care and circumspection on the part of the people, who are to choose and pay their pastor, to see that he is in every respect an honour to their choice and worthy of their reward.

The consequence is, that an ill-educated or an immoral man cannot find his way into the American clergy. There is no opening of patronage, or interest, or purchase by which he can make an entry into that body ; and being carefully selected in the first instance, and having every conceivable motive for retaining his ground, and justifying the soundness of the choice in the second, his zeal, industry, and correct conduct are all called forth to their utmost, and the greatest harmony of respect and affection almost uniformly reigns between the pastor and his flock. The estimation in which the clergy are held here, and the influence which they consequently exercise over the taste and conduct of the com-

munity, is much greater than it is in England, and thus it is that the churches are more uniformly filled, the services altogether more decorous, more impressive, and more efficient; the seats more commodious, the furniture more substantial, the singing and music more refined as well as devotional, the prayers more earnest, the sermons more searching, and the congregations more influenced by religious motives or respect to religious principles and observances in their general conduct in society.

I remember to have heard here a curious anecdote of one of our distinguished legislators, which is worth recording. In a conversation which I had with one of the State judges, resident in Albany, as to the opposite opinions entertained in England on the subject of supporting religion by a State establishment or by the voluntary system, I mentioned that I had myself heard debates in the English House of Commons, in which it was boldly asserted on the one side that the flourishing condition of the churches of every sect in America was sufficient proof of the excellence of the voluntary system of support for religion, while on the other hand it was as warmly contended by those who were in favour of a State establishment, that the voluntary system had entirely failed in America, where there was a great deal less of religion and religious observances than in England. I added that these counter assertions staggered the doubting, who could not decide on the relative value of the conflicting evidence, especially when a nobleman of great talents, one of the ablest supporters of the State Church, and who, in addition to his rank, station, and ability, added the advantage of having travelled in America, allied himself to the latter party.

Upon hearing this, the learned judge said, "I do not wonder that this noble lord saw so little of the religion and religious observances of the Americans when he travelled among them, because I happen to remember being at Utica, where the court was then sitting, at the period of his arrival in that city, accompanied by two other gentlemen now in the British Legislature; and on the Sunday, when our religious observances are most apparent, these young English statesmen, and friends and advocates of an established church, set off in their carriage to the West, with their dogs and guns, on a shooting or sporting excursion, to the no small surprise of those who thought they might have all been much more appropriately employed."

Excessive zeal for the Established Church is, however, capable of a more easy solution than a belief that the voluntary system is not favourable to the interests of religion in America; and may be sometimes found, perhaps, in the fact that deep interest at stake in the amount of church property, and church patronage, will obscure the perception of men of the most brilliant talents. If such inducements as these to advocate an established church existed in America, I have no doubt that, with the class who possessed these pecuniary

advantages, the voluntary system would be just as unpopular here as it is with the same class in England. But put the question fairly on the issue of its merits, to be decided by impartial, because disinterested witnesses, and the number are very few in either country whose judgments would not decide in its favour.

To every one of the churches in Albany a Sunday-school is attached, in which are educated and trained up in respect for religion about 5000 children; the duty of teachers in these schools is performed by young persons of the first families of the city, of both sexes, who appear to take a great delight in this pure exercise of benevolence, by gratuitously instructing those who would otherwise remain ignorant, and devoting themselves for years to this service.

It appears from the ancient records of the Corporation that the first church in Albany was erected in the year 1656, the cornerstone of which was laid by Rutger Jacobson. It was, of course, a Dutch church. The bell and pulpit were sent from Holland in April, 1657. Previous to this time Divine service was performed in "The Fort," and afterward in a small blockhouse erected for the purpose. This church, for which the bell was sent, continued to be used till the year 1715, a period of 59 years. At that time the church was found too small, and the inhabitants determined on erecting a larger one. But, with characteristic fondness for preaching, and for Divine service generally, it was resolved that the old church should be used during the period that the new church was erecting over it. It was accordingly so managed that, while the new church was in progress, enclosing the old one, not a single Sunday was lost in preaching in the latter. In 1806 the new church was opened and the old one demolished; and it is stated that a Dutchman of the name of Onderkirk was the first person christened in that church, and the last one buried at the sound of its bell.

The next oldest place of worship in Albany was St. Peter's Church, the foundation of which was laid in 1705, in the reign of Queen Anne, who presented it with plate for the communion service. The inscription on the new one erected in its stead is as follows: "Glory to the Lord, for he is good; for his mercy endureth forever. St. Peter's Church, formerly standing in the centre of State-street, at its intersection with Barrack-street, built A.D. 1705, incorporated A.D. 1802."

Of the other public buildings, the Capitol, or Legislative Hall, is one of the most prominent. It stands on the summit of the hill, or highest part of the City of Albany, and terminates the upward vista of State-street from the river, as the Albany Academy terminates the vista of Steuben-street, each having their foundations at an elevation of 130 feet above the Hudson. It is a fine building of stone,

115 feet in front, 90 feet in depth, and 50 feet in height, independently of the small tower arising from the centre, on the summit of which stands the figure of Justice. It has a basement of 10 feet, and two stories above that. The east front, looking down State-street towards the river, has an Ionic portico of four pillars, about 33 feet in height; and in the interior are two halls of legislation for the Senate and the Assembly, with the Supreme Court of Justice and the Court of Chancery for the State, the State Library, consisting of 30,000 volumes, and other rooms for committees and public business. The various rooms are well proportioned, and well adapted to their respective purposes; they are adorned with full-length portraits of Washington, of the several governors of the state in succession, of the several chancellors of the state also, with portraits and busts of other public characters of America.

The City Hall, which is not far from the Capitol, and which is used for municipal business transacted by the mayor and corporation, who form the local government of the town, is also a fine edifice, built of white marble, and surmounted by a dome, which is gilded, and is a conspicuous object from afar on approaching the city.

A new State Hall is now in progress of building, constructed also of white marble, and in the neighbourhood of the Capitol, the Academy, and the City Hall. This is to contain all the public offices for the various state officers, such as the secretary of state, comptroller, treasurer, surveyor-general, attorney-general, and others.

Of newspapers there are four in Albany, three daily and one weekly. Of the daily there are two morning and one evening paper. "The Argus," published in the morning, is conducted by the gentleman who holds the office of State printer, which is very lucrative; and he, of course, supports the existing administration, or is, in other words, highly Democratic, the local government of the state according with the general government of the Union, it being in the hands of the Democratic party at present. The other morning paper, "The Daily Advertiser," is Whig, or opposed to the present administration; so is "The Evening Journal," while "The Family Weekly Newspaper" is on the Democratic side; so that, in number of organs, the forces are well balanced; and in ability the talent appears as equally divided. Here, however, as everywhere else in America, the most violent language is used by the writers of one party towards those of another; and so entirely partial are both, that no stranger could ever arrive at the truth without comparing the statements of one side with those of the other, which, however, are often so directly opposite, even in matters of fact, that it is difficult to know how much to allow for misrepresentation in both.

As an instance, the following may be cited. The state authorities being in want of a house for some public purpose, and the state printer (the editor of the *Argus*) having one well adapted to such purpose, it was purchased of him by the authorities for what was considered a fair and just price. If the house had belonged to any person else, the matter would, perhaps, never have been heard of more; but belonging to the Democratic editor, it became the subject of the most unsparing attacks, and imputations of corruption, bribery, fraudulent misapplication of the public money, and so on, for days and weeks in succession; the papers on each side making it the subject of a bitter partisan warfare throughout the state.

The following, from a neighbouring journal, is the shortest specimen that can be given of the sort of language used by the editors of and towards each other in this criminating and recriminating kind of controversy:

"The Cooperstown Freeman's Journal concludes a brief notice of the misrepresentations on this subject with the following remark:

"We ought not to close our passing notice of this without at least adverting to the character of the *source* whence these black and damning charges, upon gentlemen equal in integrity and respectability to any in this or any other state, proceed. They have their origin with the Albany Evening Journal; a paper which, in its dealings with the character and conduct of others, and with matters of fact, repudiates as well the binding force of the received obligations of honourable courtesy, as the still higher obligation of a sacred regard for truth. With such characteristics, it is not surprising that it has earned the contempt of all honourable men."

One of the most ludicrous exhibitions of this party spirit that I remember to have heard of, is contained in the following paragraph, taken from one of the New-York papers of July, 1838:

"REMOVAL OF A HEARSE-DRIVER.—The Whig authorities of New-Haven have removed Mr. Willoughby, a worthy man, from the place of hearse-driver, and appointed another person in his place, on account of his Whig principles. 'For the first time,' says the Hartford Times, 'since the creation of the world down to the present year of 1838, this humble station is made political.'"

Another instance of the eagerness with which every incident is caught up, and made to subserve some party purpose, either by elevating the one side or depressing the other, may be given from the Albany *Argus* of July 13, which contained the following paragraph:

"WHIG CHARACTERISTICS.—As the late session of Congress commenced in violence, personal and otherwise, on the part of the Federal and Bank bullies, and was early marked with blood (in the duel by which Mr. Cilley was killed by Mr. Graves, and in which Mr. Wise was the second of the latter), so it has now very appropriately terminated with an affair of fisticuffs between two Whig members from Tennessee. The circumstances are thus told by a Washington correspondent of the New-York American, under date of the 9th instant:

"Yesterday morning (Holy Sunday), Messrs. Campbell and Maury, of Tennessee, had a pugilistic encounter in the House a few minutes after it adjourned. They were much bruised, and each received a brace of black eyes. The circumstances were as follow: It appears that early on Sunday morning Mr. Maury was very active in procuring a call of the House, in order to show the country who were the delinquents. Mr. Campbell was among the absentees, and was brought to the bar with the rest in custody of the sergeant-at-arms. At eight o'clock, when the house adjourned, the latter went to his colleague and reproached him for his conduct in aiding the call, at the same time alleging that Mr. M. had done it with a view to injure him (Mr. C.) at home among his constituents. Crimination and recrimination followed, and each gentleman honoured his opponent with the epithet of "liar," "scoundrel," and so forth. As might be expected, a personal conflict was the result, and blows were bestowed in abundance. Not more than five members remained when the *fracas* commenced, and they, of course, did not attempt to interfere. After the belligerents had belaboured each other to their hearts' content, they suspended hostilities, and retired to their respective homes, and have not been seen since. It is said they are so well satisfied with their mutual inflictions, that no doubts are entertained as to farther proceedings.' "

Now it was certainly not because they were both Whigs that these members thus assaulted each other, but because they were both hot-blooded young Southerners, residents in, and representatives from, a slave state, brought up in the almost uncontrolled exercise of their irresponsible will over those subject to their authority, and, therefore, impetuous and ungovernable even among their equals, when their passions are excited by opposition.

It would have been far more just, therefore, to have headed such a paragraph by the words "Southern Characteristics," or "Southern Impetuosity," or some such title, and have drawn from it the same lesson as should be drawn from the murder of a member of the Arkansas Legislature by the speaker descending from his chair, and stabbing the offending member to the heart on the floor, and from the constant duels and assassinations with which the Southern States are so stained; all of which proves this: that, wherever the institution of slavery exists, and any one class of men may exercise with impunity uncontrolled and irresponsible power over any other class of men, they can hardly fail to have all their angry and vindictive passions frequently called forth and continually strengthened by exercise; and hence it forms a part of the general character of persons bred up under such unfavourable circumstances, to be more fiery, impetuous, and ungovernable, even among their own class, when once excited.

It happened that during our stay at Washington we lived in the same house, and breakfasted and dined daily at the same table, with the two young members from Tennessee, Mr. Maury and Mr. Campbell, as well as with Mr. Wise from Virginia; and during a familiar intercourse of many weeks we had an opportunity of knowing that they were generally mild, amiable, courteous, and gener-

ous when all things went smoothly ; but their impulses were so strong that they were all far more under the dominion of feeling than of reason ; a state which, with very few exceptions, is common to all the high-bred youths of the South, and, indeed, to the white population there generally ; and is to be attributed wholly, as it seems to me, to the influence of slave institutions.

In the same spirit, and from the operation of the same causes, the British youths in India, whether in the civil or the military service, act with more violence towards the Hindus and Mohammedans subject to their authority than they would dare to do among the inferior ranks of their own countrymen at home, and thus progressively acquire a habit of arrogance and hauteur, of domineering, or, as it is called in India, "bahaudering," at last over their equals, so that quarrels are more quickly excited and more difficult to allay, duels are more frequent, and the exercise of all the angry passions more uncontrolled. The same is the case with young officers trained up as midshipmen and lieutenants in the French, the American, and the British navies ; the same with commanders of ships generally, and, in short, of all classes and in all nations, who begin by too early an exercise of an uncontrolled power over others, and grow, as it were unconsciously, to be tyrants, without, however, being able to exercise any restraining dominion over themselves ; thus truly has the poet said,

"Man, proud man,
Dress'd in a little brief authority,
Plays such fantastic tricks before high heaven
As make the angels weep."

CHAPTER IV.

Population of Albany.—Numbers and Classes.—Character of Mr. Van Rensselaer, the Patroon.—Influence of Dutch Descent on social Manners.—Early Hours, and general Gravity of Demeanour.—Theatres, Concerts, and Balls not Popular.—Opinion of American Writers on Democracy.—Its Influence in producing Mediocrity of Taste.—Objections to acknowledge Masters by Servants.—Celebration of the National Independence, 4th of July.—Order of the Processions and Exercises.—Venerable Aspect of the Heroes of the Revolution.—Procession of the Young Men's Association.—Odes and original Poems on the Occasion.—Public Amusements.—Evening Serenade.—Order, Sobriety, and Decorum of the Day.—History of the Temperance Reform in Albany.—Character and Labours of Mr. E. C. Delavan.—Opposition of the Rich.—Backed by the Clergy.—Wide Field yet open for Temperance Efforts.—Examples of Disaster from Rum and Gunpowder.—Lines in Commemoration of the 4th of July.—Climate of Albany.—Extreme Cold and Heat.—Excessive Heat at all the great Cities.—Ludicrous Effects attributed to this.—Badness of the Pavements in America.—Deficiency of Benevolent Institutions in Albany.—Visit to the Orphan Asylum there.—History of its Origin and Funds.—Description of the Establishment.—Successful Experiment on Vegetable Diet.—Exercises of the Children in Geography.—Patriotic Speech of one of the Pupils.—Republican Hymn.—Air of God save the King.—Effect of such Exercises on the youthful Mind.—Annual Cost and Weekly Expense of each Orphan.—Unsatisfactory Visit to the Albany Museum.

THE population of Albany was, at the last census of 1830, ascertained to be 28,109; and at present it is estimated to exceed 30,000. Among these there are fewer coloured persons than we had yet seen in any part of America, the domestic servants being mostly Irish, from among the emigrants who pass through this city on their way to the West.

There is also less of inequality in the condition of the families residing here than in the larger cities on the seacoast. There are much fewer who are very rich, and scarcely any who are very poor. The individual of the greatest wealth, perhaps, in the state, it is true, resides here, but he is only one; the fortunes of most of the other wealthy men here being much more moderate.

This is the celebrated Stephen Van Rensselaer, known by the name of "The Patroon," a word derived from the Dutch, and corresponding in its meaning, it is said, to our English phrase of "lord of the manor." This gentleman's ancestor was one of the earliest of the Dutch settlers here, and had a grant of land extending for 24 miles along the banks of the river, and 24 miles inland, at that time an uncleared wilderness, but now a princely domain. This has descended, by the custom of primogeniture, to the present possessor; but a law of the State of New-York, passed some time since, having prohibited such custom in future, the property will, at his death, be divided among his children.

In addition to his territorial and patrimonial wealth, "The Patroon" some years since was obliged to take, in payment of a bad debt of 50,000 dollars then owing to him, a tract of land near New-York, and another in the west of this state, which he then con-

sidered a great hardship, as it was comparatively valueless. Increased population, and the progressive improvement of the country, have made these tracts, however, so valuable, that it is said his whole property, patrimonial and otherwise, yields him a clear income of more than a million of dollars, or £200,000 sterling per annum. I have no means of ascertaining whether this is strictly true, but such is the general opinion; and the extent of the territory, and the number of farms and houses belonging to him, render it extremely probable.

This old gentleman is now upward of 70 years of age, and feeble. He has led, however, so just and virtuous a life, and been so generous and liberal with his wealth, that he is universally respected and beloved. He has been also most happy in the honourable conduct of his children, whose large expectations have not made them at all less anxious to recommend themselves to the esteem of their neighbours, with whom they mingle on terms of the most friendly equality, and lead the most rational and least ostentatious life imaginable. Altogether their presence and influence seems to be felt as a blessing to the community.*

Besides the family of the Van Rensselaers, there are many others of Dutch descent, more, perhaps, than in any other community in America. These, in their number and ramifications, give a great gravity and decorum to the general tone of society here. There is less of show in houses, carriages, and horses; less of formal visiting, and large and expensive parties; less of ceremony and etiquette in visiting; very early hours for meals: seven for breakfast, two for dinner, and six for tea; plainer and more simple fare at each than in the larger towns; and instead of persons living, as they too frequently do in the large commercial cities, at a rate beyond their income, and then winding up, after a career of extravagance, in a state of insolvency, every family here lives much within its income, and lays by accumulated means for the succeeding generation.

The winter is the period when Albany is fullest of residents and strangers, for at that season of the year the Legislature and the courts are in session; and at that time, besides the families of the legislators, and the members of the bench and the bar, a great number of families come in from the country to stay for the winter. There is then somewhat more of gayety than in the summer, though even then there is less than in most other cities.

The theatre is rarely frequented, except when Mr. Forrest or some very attractive performer comes, and then only by a small class of the population. Concerts are not often given: and it may serve to show the feelings of a large portion of the influential classes towards public singers generally, to mention that Madame Caradori Allan, who gave a concert at Troy, six miles off, with only half the population of Albany, was unable to give a

* This venerable and excellent man has since descended to the grave.

concert here, because the only eligible room for that purpose, which is a spacious hall, forming the chapel of the Female Academy, was refused to her by the trustees, on the ground of her being also an *actress*, though it had been granted to Mr. Russell, a vocalist, who was only a *singer*! Balls are not frequent, nor very largely attended; and, in short, the grave influence of Dutch descent, mingled with the religious influence of the Puritan settlers of New-England, many of whose descendants reside here engaged in business, contribute jointly to give a more quiet and sober air to everything done in the city, than even the Quaker influence spreads over Philadelphia.

An English writer would perhaps be blamed for saying that the consequence of these influences was a decided mediocrity in public taste in matters of public attainment or public execution. But from one of their own writers it may be less unpalatable. Of the fact there can be no doubt; as to the causes, there may be a diversity of opinion. Mr. Cooper, the American author, in his late work on the Democracy of America, thus accounts for it:

“The tendency of democracies is in all things to mediocrity, since the tastes, knowledge, and principles of the majority form the tribunal of appeal. This circumstance, while it certainly serves to elevate the average qualities of a nation, renders the introduction of a high standard difficult. Thus do we find in literature, the arts, architecture, and in all acquired knowledge, a tendency in America to gravitate towards the common centre in this as in other things, lending a value and estimation to mediocrity that are not elsewhere given. It is fair to expect, however, that a foundation so broad may in time sustain a superstructure of commensurate proportions, and that the influence of masses will in this, as in the other interests, have a generally beneficial effect. Still it should not be forgotten that, with the exception of those works of which, as they appeal to human sympathies or the practices of men, an intelligent public is the best judge, the mass of no community is qualified to decide the most correctly on anything which in its nature is above its reach.”

From the influence of the same spirit of Democracy, there is a great reluctance to admit the existence of inequality of condition, and this disposition grows stronger and stronger in proportion to the degree in which the inequality really does exist. Among the rich, for instance, there is no such reluctance at all; among the middle classes it is felt to a moderate extent; but among servants it is at its maximum. On this subject Mr. Cooper has the following accurate remarks:

“In consequence of the domestic servants of America having once been negro slaves, a prejudice has arisen among the labouring classes of the whites, who not only dislike the term servant, but have also rejected that of master. So far has this prejudice gone, that in lieu of the latter they have resorted to the use of the word *boss*, which has precisely the same meaning in Dutch! How far a subterfuge of this nature is worthy of a manly and common-sense people, will admit of question.

"A similar objection may be made to the use of the word 'help,' which is not only an innovation on a just and established term, but which does not properly convey the meaning intended. They who aid their masters in the toil may be deemed 'helps,' but they who perform all the labour do not assist or help to do the thing, but they do it themselves. A man does not usually hire his cook to *help* him to cook his dinner, but to cook it herself. Nothing is therefore gained, while something is lost in simplicity and clearness, by the substitution of new and imperfect terms for the long-established words of the language. In all cases in which the people of America have retained the *things* of their ancestors, they should not be ashamed to keep the *names*."

Another mode in which this feeling displays itself in almost all classes of the community, is the tendency of the public orators to administer largely of flattery to the popular assemblies they address; and the consequent craving after praise and adulation among those who are addressed, accompanied with a sensitiveness of the quickest kind to any idea or hint that anything American is imperfect. I have nowhere seen this national failing more happily expressed than in a very beautiful address delivered by Mr. Nicholas Biddle, the president of the United States' Bank, to the alumni of the college at Princeton, in New-Jersey, on one of their late anniversaries; and as a travelled American, familiar with foreign countries and thoroughly conversant with his own, no man could more faithfully depict this failing of his fellow-citizens than he has done in the following passage, in which he speaks of the arts of public candidates for political office, and their flatteries of their constituents:

"Our sovereignty, our virtues, our talents, are the daily themes of eulogy; they assure us that we are the best and wisest of the human race; that their highest glory is to be the instruments of our pleasure, and that they will never act, nor think, nor speak, but as we direct them. If we name them to executive stations, they promise to execute only what we desire; if we send them to deliberative bodies, they engage never to deliberate, but be guided solely by the light of our intuitive wisdom. Startled at first by language which, when addressed to other sovereigns, we are accustomed to ridicule for its abject sycophancy, constant repetition makes it less incredible. By degrees, although we may not believe all the praise, we cannot doubt the praiser, till at last we become so spoiled by adulation that truth is unwelcome. If it comes from a stranger, it must be prejudice; if from a native, scarce less than treason; and when some unhappy traveller ventures to smile at follies which we will not see or dare not acknowledge, instead of disregarding it, or being amused by it, or profiting by it, we resent it as an indignity to our sovereign perfections. This childish sensitiveness would be only ludicrous if it did not expose us to the seduction of those who flatter us only till they are able to betray us—as men praise what they mean to sell—treating us like pagan idols, caressed till we have granted away our power, and then scourged for our impotence."

If this be true as respects the public orators of political parties, it is equally so with those other organs of political sentiments, the public journals; in which the habit of exaggeration in all things

of adulation towards their own party, and denunciation of every other, is carried to an extent unparalleled, I think, in any other age or country. On this subject, too, I do not think it so safe to give my own opinion only, lest its accuracy or sincerity might be doubted, as to refer again to an American authority, Mr. Cooper, who, in his chapter on the American press, says:

"The newspaper press of this country is distinguished from that of Europe in several essential particulars. While there are more prints, they are generally of a lower character. It follows that, in all in which they are useful, their utility is more diffused through society, and in all in which they are hurtful, the injury they inflict is more wide-spread and corrupting.

"The great number of newspapers in America is a cause of there being so little capital, and, consequently, so little intelligence, employed in their management. It is also a reason of the inexactitude of much of the news they circulate. It requires a larger investment of capital than is usual in this country to obtain correct information; while, on the other hand, the great competition renders editors reckless and impatient to fill their columns. To these circumstances may be added the greater influence of vague and unfounded rumours in a vast and thinly-settled country, than on a compact population covering a small surface.

"Discreet and observing men have questioned whether, after excluding the notices of deaths and marriages, one half of the circumstances that are related in the newspapers of America as facts are true in their essential features; and, in cases connected with party politics, it may be questioned if even so large a proportion can be set down as accurate.

"This is a terrible picture to contemplate; for, when the number of prints is remembered, and the avidity with which they are read is brought into the account, we are made to perceive that the entire nation, in a moral sense, breathes an atmosphere of falsehoods. There is little use, however, in concealing the truth; on the contrary, the dread in which public men and writers commonly stand of the power of the press to injure them, has permitted the evil to extend so far, that it is scarcely exceeding the bounds of a just alarm to say that the country cannot much longer exist in safety under the malign influence that now overshadows it. Any one who has lived long enough to note changes of the sort, must have perceived how fast men of probity and virtue are losing their influence in the country, to be superseded by those who scarcely deem an affectation of the higher qualities necessary to their success. This fearful change must in a great measure be ascribed to the corruption of the public press, which, as a whole, owes its existence to the schemes of interested political adventurers.

"If newspapers are useful in overthrowing tyrants, it is only to establish a tyranny of their own. The press tyrannizes over public men, letters, the arts, the stage, and even over private life. Under the pretence of protecting public morals, it is corrupting them to the core; and under the semblance of maintaining liberty, it is gradually establishing a despotism as ruthless, as grasping, and one that is quite as vulgar as that of any Christian state known. With loud professions of freedom of opinion, there is no tolerance; with a parade of patriotism, no sacrifice of interests; and with fulsome panegyrics on propriety, too frequently no decency.

"In America, while the contest was for great principles, the press aided in elevating the common character, in improving the common mind, and in maintaining the common interests; but, since the contest

has ceased, and the struggle has become one purely of selfishness and personal interests, it is employed, as a whole, in fast undermining its own work, and in preparing the nation for some terrible reverses, if not calling down upon it the just judgment of God.

"As the press of this country now exists, it would seem to be expressly devised, by the great agent of mischief, to depress and destroy all that is good, and to elevate and advance all that is evil, in the nation. The little truth that is urged is usually urged coarsely, weakened and rendered vicious by personalities; while those who live by falsehoods, fallacies, enmities, partialities, and the schemes of the designing, find the press the very instrument that the devils would invent to effect their designs."

I am satisfied, from my intercourse with American society thus far, that Mr. Cooper is not singular in his opinions; but that a very large proportion of the more intelligent classes of the community agree with him, though they may not think it prudent to make their views on this head so public as Mr. Cooper has done.

There is one effect, however, which it has already produced, and which in some degree tends to counteract a portion of the evil; namely, that the readers of the public journals attach little or no importance to the *opinions* of the editors, and are never very confident as to the accuracy of the *facts*. A leading article, therefore, on either side of any question in a party newspaper, is in general so much labour lost, as it falls dead on the minds of all but those who are of the same way of thinking already, and to them it is, of course, mere surplusage.

But this, though it prevents the undue influence of that which is false in fact and insincere in opinion, is itself an evil of another kind, as it destroys nearly all the utility of public journals, which must be great in proportion to the integrity with which they are conducted, and the confidence which their readers can place in the veracity and sincerity of those who write in them.

During our stay in Albany we witnessed for the first time the celebration of the great national festivity of America, the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence on the 4th of July, now observed for the 62d time; and we were much gratified by what we saw. The day was extremely fine; all business appeared to be suspended, and every one was devoted to the enjoyment of holyday. The daybreak was announced by a discharge of cannon; and at sunrise a salute of 13 guns was fired, in honour of the 13 original states that united in the Declaration of Independence. This was followed by the ringing of the bells of all the churches, so that as early as five o'clock the whole city was awake and in motion. At ten o'clock the procession (formed to march through the town, on their way to the First Reformed Dutch Church, where the "exercises," as all proceedings of public meetings are here called, were to take place) was put in motion; and, as they passed before our window in Pearl-street, we saw the whole to great ad-

vantage. The procession was under the direction of the adjutant-general of the state and the marshal of the day, assisted by several military officers, and moved in the following order :

MILITARY ESCORT.

Captain Strain's Albany Republican Artillery.
Captain Brown's Albany Union Guards.

MILITARY AND CIVIC ASSOCIATIONS.

Officers of the United States Army and Navy.
Albany Military Association.

Orator and Reader.

Revolutionary Officers and Soldiers, in carriages.

The Reverend the Clergy.

Executive of the State.

PHILADELPHIA STATE FENCIBLES.

Albany Burgesses Corps.

The Common Council, preceded by its officers.

Sheriff and his officers.

Heads of the departments of the State, Chancellor, Judges of the United States, State and County Courts, preceded by their Marshals.

Fire Department, and the several Engine Companies with their Engines, Hook and Ladder, and Axe Companies, under the direction of the Chief Engineer.

The Van Rensselaer Guards.

St. Andrew's Society.

Union Benevolent Society of Journeymen Tailors.

Albany Mechanics' Benefit Society.

Hibernian Provident Society.

Saddle and Harness Makers' Society.

St. Patrick's Benevolent Society.

Citizens and Strangers.

The military had really a fine appearance, being well dressed, well equipped, and well disciplined : the bands of music, of which there were several, were all good, and one very superior ; the various companies and societies, all habited in some peculiar costume or distinguished by some peculiar badge, looked remarkably well ; and the populace, who thronged the foot-pavement on each side of the street, while the procession filled the centre, were as well dressed, as orderly, and as evidently interested in the proceedings of the day as the best friend of the republic could desire. What we missed was the waving of handkerchiefs from the windows and balconies, and the shouts and cheers of the multitude, which usually accompany such processions in England. But the Americans are more decorous than enthusiastic ; and the staid and grave manners derived from the Dutch at Albany make them quite as grave and silent on all public occasions as the Quaker population of Philadelphia.

The part of the procession which touched us most, and made unbidden tears, not of joy or sorrow, but of mere exuberance of sympathy and feeling, start involuntarily into our eyes, was the sight of the veteran heroes of the revolution, as they passed us in the open carriages that contained them. As sixty-two years have passed

away since the declaration of independence, the number of those who actually fought in the war of the revolution is now very small, and they are, of course, every year diminishing, so that in a few years more they will all have descended to the tomb. The veterans we saw were all above 80 years of age, and the oldest of them was 96. The hoary locks which were visible on each, with the associations which their years and services awakened, impressed us more powerfully than anything we had yet witnessed in the country; and it was evident, from the demeanour and bearing of all parties, young and old, towards these veterans as they passed, that one universal sentiment of veneration and respect for their age and character pervaded all classes.

In the church, which was crowded in every part, the exercises consisted of music by the choir, prayer by the pastor, the reading of the Declaration of Independence by one of the citizens, and an oration in honour of the day by another, all of which were well performed; and on the procession passing from the church, it marched to the City Hall, and, after a discharge of volleys, dispersed.

In the afternoon a second public procession was formed by the members of the Young Men's Association, a body combined for mutual instruction; and this, while it was less military, was more literary—in keeping with the character of the institution. They marched from their rooms in the Knickerbocker Hall to the second Presbyterian Church in regular order; and, in addition to the usual exercises of the day, similar to those performed in the morning, there were three original odes, all written expressly for the occasion by ladies of the city, one by a pupil of the Female Academy, and each highly creditable to the talents of their writers, with a longer poem by a gentleman of Albany and member of the association.

In the evening the public places of amusement were all open, and illuminations and fireworks were exhibited at different quarters of the city. There was also a great public dinner held in one of the domed edifices about 500 yards from our dwelling, from whence the cheers and huzzas came so loud and frequent over the toasts that were drank as to excite some apprehension for the perfect sobriety of the guests. There were, indeed, some instances of intemperance visible in the streets, but they did not amount to half a dozen, and were among the humblest class of labourers, so that the general sobriety of the day was one of its most remarkable and most pleasing features.

The day was closed by a delightful serenade of music opposite the house of the governor, W. L. Marcy, which, as it adjoined our own residence, we enjoyed in perfection. The night was delicious after the warmth of the day, and the moon, now just about the full, was really brilliant. The busy hum of the street was hushed; for

though there were still hundreds of well-dressed persons, of both sexes, taking their evening walks beneath the trees that here, as at Philadelphia and most other American cities, line the pavement on either side, yet the sound of their footsteps could scarcely be heard. The band was of first-rate excellence; we understood that it came up from Philadelphia with the State Fencibles, that it was under the training of a coloured man named Frank Johnson, who was an able musician, and who, having recently been in Europe, had come back greatly improved. The only military bands I ever remember to have heard superior to it were the royal band that attends at the Palace of St. James's in London, and the band of the National Guards at Paris. The music, too, was as well chosen as it was well executed, and our only regret was when it ceased, which was not, however, till nearly midnight.

One of the causes, if not the principal cause, of the general temperance of the people of Albany, is the influence exerted by the operations of the New-York State Temperance Society, of which this has, for many years past, been the headquarters. Mainly through the philanthropy, zeal, and liberality of one individual, Mr. E. C. Delavan, who, having acquired a handsome fortune in trade, devoted the leisure of his retirement and the use of his funds to various benevolent objects, the attention of the American public was first roused to the tremendous evils which intemperance inflicted on the country, and the importance of checking its farther progress.

It was here the first Temperance journal was established by him, and conducted with so much ability and success, that it attained to the possession of 300,000 subscribers throughout the Union. Here also Temperance conventions were held, resolutions adopted, circulars and agents despatched, funds provided, and all the great machinery of the temperance reform set in motion. It was to have been expected that the large class of persons who are interested in the importation, manufacture, and sale of intoxicating drinks—a powerful array of numbers, who fatten on the miseries which their traffic inflicts on others—should be violently opposed to him, as they were; but it was hardly to be expected that, because he considered wine to be as much an agent in producing intemperance among certain classes, and beer and cider among certain others, as ardent spirits among that class who alone can consume them; and because he boldly proclaimed this truth, and based on it his advocacy of total abstinence from all that can intoxicate as the only safe rule of action for those who desire to add example to precept in favour of temperance reform—it was hardly to be expected that, because of this, he would be set upon and persecuted by the opulent and influential among the laity, and the professed friends of temperance even among the clergy. Yet so it was; and this persecution, for it was nothing short of it, deserves to be numbered among the dark chapters of the history of Albany.

But their triumph was but for a season. The true principle of hostility to intemperance, and all that can occasion it, is gaining ground among the rational of all classes, as much more consistent with Christian virtue and with social expediency than the absurd and selfish war of the rich against ardent spirits, which are drank chiefly by the poor, while indulging the free use of wine, beer, and cider, because these are consumed by themselves; thus realizing the picture of the class described by Hudibras, who

“Compound for sins they are inclined to,
By damning those they have no mind to.”

Mr. Delavan, nothing daunted by this opposition, still devotes nearly all his time and a very large portion of his ample fortune to the promotion of the temperance cause; and his labours are abundantly rewarded with success. The field, however, is still ample for the exercise of all the exertions that can be used to rescue the country and the people from the curse of intoxicating liquors. Here is a paragraph from a newspaper of the very morning on which I am writing this (July 5), and scarcely a journal can be taken up on any day of the week that does not contain some melancholy proof of the evils of excessive drinking:

“EFFECTS OF RUM.—A miserable being died in the county jail in this town on Sunday morning, from the effects of former excess in drinking rum. His name was John H. Frothingham, of Salem, his age 26. He was committed the last of May for drunkenness, and has had the delirium tremens since his confinement. His passion for rum was insatiable. It is said that he once broke into a distillery in Salem, and, finding nothing to drink with, threw himself upon his back under a pipe of rum, turned the cock, and let the stream run into his mouth; when he became full he was insensible, and could not turn back the cock, and the contents of the pipe were discharged on the ground. He was found insensible in the morning, and with much difficulty resuscitated.”—*Northampton Gazette*.

It is on great festive occasions like the 4th of July, however, that the greatest amount of this evil is seen concentrated into the smallest space of time, and the chief agent in producing them is intoxicating drink, the conviction of which is now becoming general; and in proof of this, the following paragraph is taken from the journal of a neighbouring town, not twenty miles from Albany, dated on the 6th of July:

“DREADFUL DISASTER AND LOSS OF LIFE ON THE 4TH INST.—Ever since we paid any attention to the subject, we have noticed that every anniversary of our national independence for many years past has been marked with the destruction of human life; and we now unreservedly yield to the opinion, that these anniversaries should ever after be celebrated *without either powder or rum*. To these two causes exclusively are all the accidents which we are called upon so often to deplore to be attributed. It was hoped and believed that the late anniversary in this city would have passed off without such accidents; but, alas! how sadly have we been disappointed.”

It was a conviction of the additional dangers which this day presented to the intemperate, that led the Temperance Societies throughout the Union to determine on celebrating this great national anniversary, whenever they could, as a temperance festival; and to what extent this has been accomplished throughout the Union, may be judged of from the fact that more than one hundred such temperance festivals were held on this 4th of July in the single State of New-York alone, and all without a single accident. Having been unable to attend in person at the very many celebrations to which I was invited, I endeavoured to contribute my share towards the utility of such festivals by penning, while under considerable indisposition, some lines adapted to the occasion, which were printed in many of the journals favourable to the temperance cause, and thus had an extensive circulation over the state on the day to which they related.*

Among the various modes of celebrating the national anniversary of the 4th of July, there was none more happy than that of the Sunday School Union at New-York, who took an excursion of pleasure on the beautiful river Hudson, in steamboats and barges, with upward of two thousand pupils, teachers, and guests, and passed a sober, rational, and delightful day. The journal of their voyage is full of moral interest, and it will be an example for others to follow. The temperance celebrations were very numerous throughout the Union, and many of the most distinguished characters of America assisted at them.

The climate of Albany is characterized by the two extremes of excessive cold in the winter and intense heat in the summer. In the winter, which often lasts six months, the river is for great part of the time frozen over so hard that the most heavily-laden wagons pass daily in numbers over the ice. In some severe winters the thermometer is said to have stood at 35° below zero; but no winter ever passes without its falling some degrees below it. The spring and autumn do not exceed a month each; and the short summer of four months is remarkable for intense heat. During the three weeks of our stay here the thermometer was always above 80°, frequently above 90°, and on three or four successive days nearly touched 100° in the shade, while the dead calm that prevailed made the night almost as oppressive as the day. It was admitted, however, that the summer of this year was unusually sultry, not merely at Albany, but in all parts of the Union. At Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson, it was said to be above 100° in the shade, and 150° in the sun. On Long Island, near the sea, it was above 100° in the shade; and both men and cattle were reported to have died from the extreme heat. At Boston and Salem it was 100° and 102°. At New-York it was 97° and 98° in the shadiest parts; and a list was published of more than twenty deaths, the

* These lines will be found in the Appendix, No. I.

names and residences of the sufferers being given, occasioned by drinking too copiously of cold water while overheated, principally though not wholly among labouring men.

In the American newspapers it is common to see the gravest evils treated with ridicule by the quaint wit of the editors. Thus the journals seemed for some days to compete with each other for the palm of superiority as to the most ingenious points of view in which this excessive heat of the season could be exhibited. There were, accordingly, paragraphs beginning with the words "hissing hot," "frying hot," "boiling hot," and so on; but the prize seemed to be carried off by a New-Orleans editor, who, under the head of "melting hot," stated that so great was the heat at New-Orleans, that "any person choosing to put his head out of the window might see whole suits of clothes, in large numbers, walking empty through the streets, the original wearers of the garments having been entirely melted away!"

There is one circumstance which greatly increases the effect of the heat in driving through the American streets, namely, the excessive roughness of the pavement, and the consequent shaking and jolting experienced even in the best-made carriages. It had several times the effect of producing in me double the amount of suffering (uniting the heat of violent motion with the heat of the atmosphere) which would have been felt on a smooth road. I had frequently before thought that there was nothing in which American cities were so inferior to English towns of a similar size as in their central pavements—the side or foot pavements are quite as good; but I was never so forcibly struck with this as at Albany, where the steepness of the streets, ascending from the river to the Capitol Hill, and the excessive rudeness and roughness of the pavements, caused such an incessant and deafening din, in the noise of carriages and carts, as they rattled over the rounded and uneven points of the projecting stones, and shook me with such sudden and violent oscillations from side to side, and backward and forward, in constant motion, as to produce more fatigue and discomfort in a ride of one mile, than would be felt at the same temperature in a ride of ten through any of the streets of London. The rattling noise, indeed, often reminded me of the quaint conceit of Monk Lewis in his poem of the Fire King, in which, when describing that personage, he says, if I remember the words rightly,

"His teeth they did clatter, as if you should try
To play the piano in thimbles."

This evil might be easily remedied by the use of wooden pavements in perpendicularly inserted octagonal blocks, such as have been partially, but successfully, tried in New-York and Philadelphia; and, considering the cheapness and abundance of wood in this country, there is little doubt but that, before long, this mode of pavement will be very generally adopted in all level streets; while

a much more smooth pavement of granite, such as is used in the best streets of London, might be adopted for ascending or descending streets, for this material is also abundant in most parts of the country.

Albany is singularly deficient in the number of its benevolent institutions, compared with the other cities of America, or with the extent of its own population, wealth, and resources. The only one of interest or importance is the Orphan Asylum, which I went to visit with one of the directors, and with which I was much pleased. The building is a large brick edifice on the western edge of the town, advantageously situated for the health and comfort of its inmates. The edifice cost about 20,000 dollars, which was raised by private subscription, a few individuals contributing half of the sum required, in payments of 2500 dollars or £500 sterling each, and the rest being readily obtained from the inhabitants generally.

The building is enclosed with a spacious and excellent garden of fruits, vegetables, and flowers, which the orphans cultivate themselves; and about five acres of ground afford them pasture for cows, and spacious and airy play-grounds.

Though called an orphan asylum, the directors have found it advisable to take in destitute little children who had one parent living, but that parent unable to provide for its offspring, as in the case of destitute widows; and sometimes where both parents were alive, but where the father being a drunkard, and the mother scarcely able to maintain herself, the little children were really as badly off as if both father and mother had been in the grave. I was assured by the director, Mr. Wood, that in an investigation which he deemed it his duty to make previously to preparing one of the last annual reports, he had found that in fully nineteen cases out of every twenty, the little children, whether orphans or otherwise, were destitute and helpless entirely because their fathers or mothers, or both, had been persons of intemperate habits, and expended what they ought to have bestowed on their children in intoxicating drink.

There are at present about 100 children in the Asylum, from 3 to 10 years of age. At their entry, if there be any persons who have a claim to them by relationship or otherwise, the consent of such person is obtained to the giving up the child wholly to the direction of the Asylum till it shall be 21 years of age. The child is then provided with food, raiment, and lodging, and receives a plain, but religious education. Their diet is wholly vegetable; and this is found, by some years' experience, to be not only sufficiently nutritious to ensure all the required strength, but superior to animal diet in its being less likely to engender diseases, the average health of the children, notwithstanding the destitute condition in which many of them are taken in, being greater than the average condition of any similar number not so fed. They work in the garden with great cheerfulness, cultivating their own food; and this,

again, while it is a pleasurable and even instructive recreation, is found highly favourable to their health.

During our visit, which was just before sunset, the little children were assembled to go through some of their exercises, and a little fellow of about seven years old, being directed to step out of the ranks for the purpose, was requested to commence the examination. He began to question them on geography, and they really evinced considerable knowledge for their age. They sang also prettily and in good time. At the close of these exercises another youth of about the same age was invited to repeat an address which he had delivered at the last anniversary; and as it is characteristic of the style of thought and sentiment with which all the early lessons of the American youth abound, I transcribe it from a copy furnished at my request. The young orator, advancing to the front of the floor, said:

"America, my native country, was unknown to the white man a little more than 300 years ago; but now, what is her history? It is but 217 years since our pilgrim fathers fled from their homes in the storm of persecution, and found, in this then wilderness world, an asylum, a peaceful retreat. It was for Christian liberty they fled; and it was then that they first sowed in this soil those seeds of freedom which have since so fertilized our happy land. Though England held her sovereign power to rule a while, her dominion was but short; and we bless the glorious day when our patriot fathers, aroused by noble indignation, broke the chains of tyranny that were too long imposed upon them; and then liberty, sweet liberty, smiled on all these states. But what has our freedom cost? The toils, the suffering, and the death of many a valiant friend of human rights. Their sacrifices dearly purchased for us the gift which we cannot too highly value. And will *you*, our fathers now, continue to guard her sacred rights till *we*, your sons, shall stand up in your stead to defend her cause? Yes! I know you will; and though war and tumult rage both north and south of us (alluding to the insurrection in Canada and the Indian warfare in Florida), yet on us shall peace and plenty still continue to smile."

After this a hymn was sung by all the children, standing, to the air of "God save the King," the first stanza of which was as follows:

"My country! 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing.
Land of the pilgrim's pride,
Land where my fathers died,
From every mountain-side
Let freedom ring."

Such are the sentiments of love of country, veneration for its first founders, and respect for those who, following after, established its independence, that are everywhere implanted in the infant mind

of America. The subsequent exercises of their schoolbooks reiterate all this in later youth, and early initiation into political doctrines follows soon after, by pupils, almost as soon as they have completed their studies, becoming members of Young Men's Conventions, held from time to time to declare adherence to certain political principles, and organize plans of action. The impressions thus become so deep and permanent that there is no subsequent danger of their obliteration; for in politics, as in morals and religion, more depends on the first impressions planted in early youth, and the frequent repetition of them from thence to manhood in one unbroken chain, than upon the reasoning powers of individuals; and thus it is that national faiths, habits, and forms of government are so continually preserved from generation to generation.

The annual expense of this asylum for feeding, clothing, and educating 100 orphans, is about 3000 dollars or £600 annually, being about 50 cents or two shillings sterling per head per week; and the funds for this are readily obtained by subscriptions in the city, as the asylum is a favourite charity. Every suitable opportunity is taken to place the children out at the proper age in advantageous situations in life; and hitherto the institution has been a great blessing to the destitute objects of its care, and an honour to its directors and supporters.

The last of the public institutions we saw in Albany was the Museum, which has been spoken of as one of the best in the country. We found it inferior, however, to any we had yet seen, in the limited extent and variety of its collections, as well as in the defective arrangement and inferior quality of almost everything belonging to it.

CHAPTER V.

Excursion to the Shaker Village of Niskyuna.—Description of their Place of Worship.—Arrangement for the Reception of Strangers.—Costume of the Shakers, Male and Female.—Silent Commencement of their Devotions.—Address of one of the Male Elders.—First Hymn sung by all the Worshipers.—Address of a second Elder to the Visitors.—Attitude of Kneeling, and Invitation to the Angels.—Defence of the Character of the Institution.—Speech of one of the Female Elders.—Commencement of the devotional Dancing.—Gradually increasing Fervour of their Devotion.—Hymns to Quick Song-tunes, and a Gallopade.—Extravagant Evolutions of the Female Dancers.—Comparison with the whirling Dervishes of Damascus.—Fanaticism of Christians, Mohammedans, and Hindus.

On Sunday, the 15th of July, we left Albany at nine in the morning, on a visit to the establishment of the religious sect called "The Shakers," at Niskyuna, a distance of eight miles from Albany in a northwest direction. Having a comfortable open car-

riage and a good pair of horses, our journey was easy and agreeable. A great part of the road was bordered with a rich variety of wood, and other parts showed extended tracts of cultivation; while the range of the Catskill Mountains to the south formed an interesting feature in the general picture. The sky was bright, the heat not oppressive, the thermometer at 80° in the town and 75° in the country, and the perfume of the shrubs and flowers delightful.

We arrived at the village of Niskyuna about half past ten, just as the community were assembling for worship, and saw several lines or files of males and females walking in pairs through the fields towards the place of meeting. We entered with them the place of worship, which was a plain room of about 50 feet long by 25 feet broad, without pulpit, pews, curtains, or any kind of furniture; plain benches being provided for seating the Shakers themselves, as well as the strangers who came to see them. Every part of the building or room was in the utmost perfection of cleanliness, and not a speck or particle of dust or dirt was anywhere visible.

For the strangers a number of benches were placed, to accommodate about 200, and there were fully that number of visitors from the neighbouring country present. Of these; the males had to enter by one door and the females by another, and each to remain separate during the service. Of the Shakers who joined in the worship there were about 100 males and 100 females. These entered also by different doors, and ranged themselves on benches in oblique lines from each end of the room till they nearly met each other, when the space between the front row of each sex was triangular, the apex of the triangle being the place from whence the speakers addressed the assembly on the floor. The constantly widening space caused by the diagonal lines of the two front rows, left an opening by which all the strangers who came as spectators could see the persons and countenances of those who joined in the worship clearly and distinctly.

The males included several boys from 7 or 8 years old to 14, and so upward to young men of 20, middle-aged of 30 and 40, and elders of 50, 60, and 70; and there was the same diversity of ages among the females. But, notwithstanding the difference of age in each, they were all dressed in one uniform fashion.

The dress of the men consisted of a white shirt, collar, and white cravat, loose trousers, and large waistcoat of a deep maroon-coloured stuff, like camlet or bombazin; the trousers were so long as to touch the shoes, but there were neither straps to keep them down, nor braces to suspend them upward. The waistcoat was of the old-fashioned cut of the court-dress used a century or two ago: single-breasted, with a deep waist cut away diagonally in front, and with long, low pockets. The waistcoat was not buttoned, but hung loose, showing the entire front or bosom of the shirt, and no

coat or jacket of any kind was worn, so that all the men were literally in their shirt-sleeves.

The dress of the women was entirely white; the gown was long and narrow, and the waist short, the sleeves tight, the bosom plain, and all attempt at gracefulness of form or decorative ornament scrupulously avoided. A small clear muslin handkerchief or cape was worn over the shoulders, and a cap of clear muslin, fitting closely to the face with long descending lappets, covered the head; while the hair was put up in the plainest manner, and almost entirely concealed from view. On the left arm each female had a white napkin, neatly folded, and hanging over the arm; and the whole appearance of the congregation, notwithstanding its singularity, was impressive, from the purity and simplicity of their costume.

The physiognomy of the men was more indicative of the enthusiastic temperament than that of the women, and they were also characterized by better animal condition as to health and strength, with less appearance of intellect. Among the women there were a few, especially among the younger portion, that were handsome; but the greater part were very plain, and the whole were even more pallid than American women generally, with an appearance of languor, that betokened a morbid state of feeling and very imperfect health.

The first half hour of the worship was passed in a profound silence; the men, as they entered, stepping as lightly as possible across the floor, to hang up their broad-brimmed straw hats on the wall, and the women, as they entered, disposing of their plain straw bonnets, all of the same pattern, in a similar manner, and then taking their seats, the eldest of each sex occupying the front rows, opposite to each other, and the younger filling up the benches behind them, and some sitting on the ground.

At the end of this half hour one of the male elders rose, which was the signal for forming in ranks, when the benches were removed by the parties who sat on them, and ranged close to the wall, so as to leave the central part of the room clear. The lines were then formed, the men standing in rows at one end of the room, and the women at the other, the front ranks of each nearly meeting in the centre.

One of the elders then addressed the worshippers as dear brethren and sisters, and spoke for about five minutes. The substance of his remarks was, that they ought all to rejoice at having the privilege to meet and worship God in their own way without interruption, and at the still greater privilege of being among the number of those who were especially called by God to come out from the world, and to put aside ungodliness and all worldly lusts. They were engaged in the work of God, and not in that of the world, and their happiness consisted in knowing and doing his will.

The first speaker was followed by a second, who expressed near-

ly the same sentiments in other words; and, after a pause of a few minutes, the whole body sang together a short hymn, of which I could only catch the first verse, which was thus:

"Oh! the precious work of God—
It is pure! it is pure!
I will rejoice, and lift my voice,
To serve the Lord for evermore."

The singing was loud and harsh, without the least attempt at harmony, and the air was rude and wild. Not more than half the number of the congregation joined in this exercise, though there was no particular body as a choir to whom it was restricted; but every one seemed to pay the most devout attention.

Another elder then stepped into the front and addressed the strangers present. He said that it was very much the custom for strangers to come and visit them on the Sabbath, though they rarely came on any other day; and as there were undoubtedly some peculiarities in their worship, it was more than probable that curiosity was the leading motive that brought us there. To this they offered no impediment; for, as they were not ashamed either of their opinions or practices, but rather rejoiced in them, they did not close their doors against any persons, but willingly admitted and accommodated, as far as their space and means would allow, all who chose to remain, provided they were silent and respectful; and when they found they could not be both, it was desirable they should withdraw.

He said the world regarded them as madmen and fools, but so did the world esteem the early Christians. They knew, however, that they were sober and sincere; and the only difference between themselves and the world was, that the people of the world continued still to see things as through a glass, darkly, while God had called them out of the world to see things with all the fulness of the brightest day; and that, when our eyes were opened (for a day would come in which each would receive a call, and by his acceptance or rejection of that call his future destiny would be settled), we should look back upon the things of the world just as they now did, as being nothing but a heap of vanities and emptiness.

Another pause ensued, and then the whole assembly fell on their knees, and elevating their hands and arms, and making signs of beckoning or invitation, they sang in concert this verse:

"Come, holy angels, quickly come,
And bring your purifying fire;
Consume our lusts in every home,
And root out every foul desire."

Some of the spectators looked at the female portion of the worshippers while they were singing this, and then at each other significantly; but upon the countenances of the singers themselves, whether male or female, not a trace could be seen of any other sentiment or feeling than that of the deepest gravity and devotion.

At every close of this verse, which they repeated several times, they bowed their heads to the ground, those of the two front ranks of males and females almost touching each other; and at the termination of the whole they remained on their knees for a few minutes, looking steadfastly on the ground, and buried in the most profound silence.

When they rose another elder came forward and a second time addressed the strangers; whether he was induced to do so from the significant looks interchanged among the spectators while the last verse was singing, I could not positively say; but it seemed to me probable, because he opened his speech by observing that many persons who came to see them went away and calumniated them. Among other things, he said it had been alleged that they did not live the life of purity which they pretended, but that their practices were contrary to their professions. This he declared to be untrue, and called Heaven to witness the accuracy of his assertion. He said they laboured honestly with their own hands to maintain themselves independently; and that, between labour for subsistence and the worship of God, their time was wholly occupied, while they avoided and resisted all temptation, and kept themselves pure from all carnal defilement.

When he had ceased, one of the elders among the females, who appeared to be about sixty years of age, broke silence, and, addressing the assembly, said she had been forty years a member of the community, but had never felt herself inspired to speak till the present moment. Now, however, she felt it her duty to unloose her tongue, and declare that these aspersions upon their purity were altogether unwarranted; that their brethren gave them only protection, for which they felt duly grateful; but that they neither sought for, nor asked, nor desired anything from them in return; that the female part of the body, on whose behalf she could speak, regarded themselves as chosen vessels, set apart for the use and service of God alone; and they neither had, nor wished to have, any communication with men. This defence of the purity of the order was received by the females with the loudest and most enthusiastic acclamations and clapping of hands.

The assembly then formed itself into another order for the dancing, which is called by them "labour," and from the zeal and animation with which all their movements are performed, it may well deserve that name. The males were first arranged in pairs, following each other like troops in a line of march; and when their number was completed, the females followed after, two and two, in the same manner. In this way they formed a complete circle round the open space of the room. In the centre of the whole was a small band of about half a dozen males and half a dozen females, who were there stationed to sing the tunes and mark the time; and these began to sing with a loud voice and in quick time, like the

allegro of a sonata, or the vivace of a canzonet, the following verse :

"Perpetual blessings do demand,
Perpetual praise on every hand;
Then leap for joy, with dance and song,
To praise the Lord forever."

The motion of the double line of worshippers, as they filed off before us, was something between a march and a dance. Their bodies were inclined forward like those of persons in the act of running; they kept the most perfect time with their feet, and beat the air with their hands to the same measure. Some of the more robust and enthusiastic literally "leaped" so high as to shake the room by the weight with which they fell to their feet on the floor; and others, though taking the matter more moderately, bore evident signs of the effects of the exercise and heat united on their persons. The first dance lasted about five minutes, and during the pause which succeeded another short speech was made by one of the male elders, repeating the duty of congratulating themselves on the privileges they enjoyed.

The first dance was performed to the air of "Scots wha' ha'e wi' Wallace bled," but sung with great rapidity, such as is sometimes done when it is converted into a quick march by a military band. The second dance was of still quicker measure, and to the much less respectable old English tune of "Nancy Dawson," which I had not heard for thirty years at least, though it was a popular song in my boyhood, among sailors especially; and the last place on earth in which I should have expected to hear it revived would have been among the Shakers in America. Yet so it was: and to this lively and merry tune the whole body, now formed into three abreast instead of two, literally scampered round the room in a quick gallopade, every individual of both the choir and the dancers singing with all their might these words:

"Press on, press on, ye chosen band,
The angels go before ye;
We're marching through Emanuel's land,
Where saints shall sing in glory."

This exercise was continued for at least double the time of the former, and by it the worshippers were wrought up to such a pitch of fervour, that they were evidently on the point of some violent outbreak or paroxysm. Accordingly, the whole assembly soon got into the "most admired disorder," each dancing to his own tune and his own measure, and the females became perfectly ungovernable. About half a dozen of these whirled themselves round in what opera-dancers call a *pirouette*, performing at least fifty revolutions each, their arms extended horizontally, their clothes being blown out like an air-balloon all round their persons, their heads sometimes falling on one side, and sometimes hanging forward on the bosom, till they would at length faint away in hyster-

ical convulsions, and be caught in the arms of the surrounding dancers.

This, too, like the singing and dancing which preceded it, was accompanied by clapping of hands to mark the time, while the same verse was constantly repeated, and at every repetition with increased rapidity. Altogether the scene was one of the most extraordinary I had ever witnessed, and, except among the howling dervishes of Bagdad and the whirling dervishes of Damascus, I remember nothing in the remotest degree resembling it. It was well that the assembly was speedily after this dispersed, because I think another half hour would have carried the fervour so high that it might have ended in scenes which would have astonished and disgusted the spectators, and not have been very honourable to the performers.

During the whole period of this worship, which lasted about two hours, I was endeavouring to settle in my mind the debatable question of whether the people whom I saw before me were practising a delusion on themselves, or endeavouring to impose upon and deceive others. I had had the same difficulty before in witnessing the follies of the Christian devotees at Jerusalem and throughout the Holy Land, where the various sects of Eastern Christians endeavour to outvie each other in the extravagances of their penances and ceremonies. I had felt similar doubts when seeing the fantastic conduct of Mohammedan fakirs and dervishes in Egypt and Arabia, and Hindu devotees in Bengal and Bombay. The conclusion to which I came in all these cases was the same; namely, that there was much more of sincerity in their belief and conduct than the world generally supposed; and that, instead of attempting to dupe others, they were merely deluding themselves. The exceptions to this rule are so rare as to form an inconsiderable fraction of the whole number; and, strange as such infatuation may appear, there has never yet been an age or country free from it, in some shape or other, as the history of the world abundantly testifies.

When the assembly had broken up, I sought and obtained an interview with one of the male elders, who readily answered all the inquiries I made of him; and on my expressing a desire to procure any authentic publications which might be in existence relative to the history and peculiar views of their community, he referred me to the "Office" of the village, where I went for that purpose. We were received here by one of the female Shakers, a well-grown and pretty young woman of about twenty, with some colour yet remaining in her cheek, dark and expressive eyes, and a very cheerful and smiling countenance. Her conversation was intelligent, free from any appearance of restraint, and her manner most easy and natural. She readily answered our inquiries, and furnished me with four different works, published under the sanction of the community, and, therefore, to be relied on for their ac-

curacy, as regard the history, doctrines, and practices of the sect. I expressed a wish, however, to obtain, in addition to these, a copy of the hymns sung by them during their worship, but she said no copies of these had been published for the world. I requested her to ask of the elders whether one used by themselves could be lent me for a few days, when it should be returned; but her application was unsuccessful, as the elders had objections to their being seen or circulated beyond the limits of their own community.

We returned to Albany early in the afternoon; and from the conversation I had enjoyed with the elder and the librarian, and from the publications furnished me by the latter, I was enabled to compile and digest the following authentic account of the origin, progress, and actual condition of this singular community, as well as their peculiar views of religion and government, and the scriptural authorities on which they profess to found their doctrines and practices.

CHAPTER VI.

Origin of the Sect of Shakers in Germany and France.—Transplanting of the Sect to England in 1706.—Biography of Ann Lee, the Founder in America.—First Settlement at Niskyuna.—Death of Ann Lee.—Progress and Present State of the Society of Shakers.—Recent Spread of the Society in the Western States.

In the year 1689 some remarkable "revivals of religion," as they are called, took place in Germany and France, but particularly at Dauphiny and Vivrais in the latter country. The persons subject to these revivals are said to have been agitated in body as well as in mind by what they were pleased to call Divine inspiration. They predicted the near approach of the end of the world, and the second coming of the Messiah, to commence his millennial reign upon the earth. The following is the account which is given of the progress of this body of religionists in the work entitled "A Summary View of the Millennial Church, or United Society of Believers, commonly called Shakers; comprising the rise, progress, and practical order of the Society, together with the general principles of their Faith and Testimony, published by order of the Ministry in union with the Church."

The introduction to this work is signed by Calvin Green and Seth Wells, two of the leading elders of the sect. It is dated at New-Lebanon; May 12, 1823, and has for its motto this verse from the prophet Daniel: "In the days of these kings shall the God of heaven set up a kingdom, which shall never be destroyed." There were four other works, some of earlier and some of later date, the

earliest 1810, the latest 1838; and from these collectively the account is revised, retaining in most cases the expressions, and in all the substance of the statements made by the writers themselves, who are, of course, to be considered as alone responsible for those expressions which imply a belief in the Divine inspiration communicated to, or miracles alleged to be performed by, the several personages spoken of in the narrative. After the short history given of the religious revivals in Germany and France, before adverted to, the history is continued thus:

"About the year 1706 a few of them went over to England, where they renewed their testimony; and through the ministration of the same Spirit to others, many were united to them, so that in a short time they became very numerous, and their testimony became extensive and powerful.

"In 1747, a small number who were endowed with the spirit of these witnesses, were led by the influence of the Divine Spirit to unite themselves into a small society, in the neighbourhood of Manchester, under the ministry of James and Jane Wardley. These were both sincerely devoted to the cause of God, and were blessed with great manifestations of Divine light.

"This infant society practised no forms and adopted no creeds as rules of faith or worship; but gave themselves up to be led and guided entirely by the operations of the Spirit of God. Their meetings were powerful and animated, attended with remarkable signs and operations, and with the spirit of prophecy and Divine revelation.

"Sometimes, after sitting a while in silent meditation, they were seized with a mighty trembling, under which they would often express the indignation of God against all sin. At other times they were exercised with singing, shouting, and leaping for joy at the near prospect of salvation. They were often exercised with great agitations of body and limbs, running and walking the floor with a variety of signs and operations, and swiftly passing and repassing each other, like clouds agitated with a mighty wind. No human power could imitate the wonderful operations with which they were affected while under the influence of these spiritual signs. From these exercises, so strange in the eyes of mankind, they received the appellation of *Shakers*, which has been the most common name of distinction ever since.

"They continued to increase in light and power, with occasional additions to their number, till about the year 1770, when, by a special manifestation of Divine light, the present testimony of salvation and eternal life was fully revealed to *Ann Lee*, and by her to the society. As this extraordinary woman, concerning whom so much has been reported and published abroad in the world, was the distinguished personage to whom Christ revealed himself in his true character in this day of his second appearing, it will be necessary, in proceeding with this work, to give some account of her life, character, and ministry.

"Ann Lee was the daughter of John Lee, of Manchester, in England. She was born in the year 1736. Her father was by occupation a blacksmith, and, though poor, he was respectable in character, moral in principle, honest and punctual in his dealings, and industrious in business. Her mother was esteemed as a religious and very pious woman.

"As she considered that the people called Shakers were favoured with a greater degree of Divine light, and a more clear and pointed testimony against the nature of sin, than had hitherto been made manifest, Ann readily embraced their testimony, and united herself to the society in

the month of September, 1758, being then in the twenty-third year of her age."

She had no sooner joined herself to the society than calumniators began to appear, imputing to her every bad motive, and charging her with the commission of every crime; and the enemies of the sect have not scrupled to repeat these calumnies ever since. But the writer of her history repudiates these imputations as utterly groundless, and cites parallel cases of false accusations against the saints in all ages, in which he says:

"It is well known that the primitive Christians were greatly slandered and stigmatized by their heathen neighbours, and every false report that scandal could bestow or malice dictate was put in circulation, and urged upon the public as positive facts, that could easily be proved by eye and ear witnesses in abundance.

"Celsus the Epicurean, upon what he called good authority, charged Jesus Christ with being the offspring of adultery; and asserted 'that the mother of Jesus, being great with child, was put away by the carpenter who had espoused her, he having convicted her of adultery with a soldier named Pantheras.' Celsus farther adds, that, 'having been turned out of doors by her husband, she wandered about in a shameful manner, till she brought forth Jesus in an obscure place.*' Such are the charges of this ancient heathen calumniator against the Virgin Mary. And, influenced by the same malignant spirit, some modern Celsuses, upon what they call good authority, have charged Ann Lee with lewdness and intoxication. But those who best knew the Virgin Mary knew that the story of that ancient calumniator was false, and those who best knew Ann Lee knew that the stories of these modern calumniators are false.

"The charge of drunkenness alleged against Ann Lee and her companions had no more foundation in truth than the same charges alleged against the apostles and primitive Christians at the day of Pentecost. The truth is, they were under the operation of the same Spirit, and it was attended with the same effects on those who received it, and excited the same opposition in their enemies, and gave rise to the same false accusations.

"While in deep exercise of mind concerning these things, she was brought into a state of excessive tribulation of soul, in which she felt her way hedged up, seemingly, on every side, and was constrained to cry mightily to God to open some way of deliverance. In the midst of her sufferings and earnest cries to God, her soul was filled with Divine light, and the mysteries of the spiritual world were brought clearly to her understanding. She saw the Lord Jesus Christ in his glory, who revealed to her the great object of her prayers, and fully satisfied all the desires of her soul. The most astonishing visions and Divine manifestations were presented to her view in so clear and striking a manner, that the whole spiritual world seemed displayed before her. In these extraordinary manifestations she had a full and clear view of the mystery of iniquity, of the root and foundation of human depravity, and of the very act of transgression committed by the first man and woman in the garden of Eden. Here she saw whence and wherein all mankind were lost from God, and clearly realized the only possible way of recovery.

"After Ann was received and acknowledged as the spiritual mother

* See Lardner's Works, vol. viii., p. 19.

and leader of the society, the manner of worship and the exercises in their public assemblies were singing and dancing, shaking and shouting, speaking with new tongues and prophesying, with all those various gifts of the Holy Ghost known in the primitive Church. These gifts progressively increased until the establishment of the Church in America, by which those who were in the spirit of the work were convinced, beyond all doubt or controversy, that it was the beginning of Christ's reign upon earth.

"A special revelation was then announced to Mother Ann, by which she was commanded to repair to America with her faithful band of followers, accompanied with a prophecy that the true Millennial Church would ultimately be established in that country. This revelation was communicated to the society, and was soon confirmed by signs, visions, and extraordinary manifestations to many individual members; and permission was given for all those of the society to accompany her who were able, and who felt any special impressions on their own minds so to do. Accordingly, those who became the companions of Mother Ann in her voyage to America, embarked at Liverpool on board the ship *Mariah*, Captain Smith, of New-York, and sailed on the 19th of May, 1774.

"When Mother Ann landed at New-York, she counselled those who came with her, for a season, to seek their livelihood where they could find employ, as they were mostly poor, and had nothing to subsist upon but what they obtained by honest industry. Accordingly, they were all scattered in different parts of the country until the spring of the year 1776. She then went by water up to Albany, and from thence to Niskayuna (now Watervliet), and about the month of September fixed her residence where the Church is now established, eight miles northwest from the centre of the City of Albany."

Such is the history, condensed from the publications of the Shakers themselves, and given in the language of their own writers, of the first founder of their community in America. Large portions of this history have been passed over unnoticed, as consisting of disputes with the public authorities, persecutions, and miraculous deliverances, gifts of prophecy, gifts of tongues, and power of performing miraculous cures; for, though these are referred to triumphantly by the society as proofs of their Divine origin, they may be paralleled by similar proofs in the early history of all the different systems of religion that exist in the world, as well as their subsequent ramifications; and all supported by testimonies sufficient to satisfy those who belong to the particular faith they are intended to confirm, but, unfortunately, having no such effect on any others.

In justice, however, to the believers in those miracles, it is proper to give their own account of the last vision that was seen by their leader, and to add the note upon the passage as the answer to the objections urged against their truth. The narrator of the last moments of Ann Lee thus expresses himself:

"Though her bodily sufferings were great, yet she appeared calm, peaceable, and comfortable in spirit, and her usual patience and fortitude appeared conspicuous to the end. She continually grew weaker in body until the 8th of September, between twelve and one o'clock in the morning, when she breathed her last, with-

out a struggle or a groan. Before her departure she repeatedly told those about her that she was going home. Just before she expired, she said, 'I see Brother William coming in a glorious chariot to take me home.' Elder John Hocknell, who was greatly gifted in visions, testified that when the breath left her body, he saw in vision a golden chariot, drawn by four white horses, which received and wafted her soul out of his sight.*

"Thus," concludes this writer, "departed from this mortal stage that extraordinary female, who was chosen of God to commence, in this latter day, the regeneration of a lost world; in whom Christ, in very deed, appeared the second time without sin unto salvation; whose life of righteousness excited against her the enmity of the wicked, and against whose character the envenomed tongue of slander has never ceased to pour forth its calumnies even to this day. In her the sufferings of Christ appeared conspicuous; in her the righteousness of Christ was clearly manifested to all her faithful followers. In her Christ was revealed the Lord from heaven, a quickening spirit; in her was renewed his example of perfect obedience to the will of his heavenly Father; in her was revived the way of life and salvation by the cross, and she plainly taught the impossibility of obtaining it in any other way. In her was first wrought the complete redemption of the female; and, through her ministration, a way was opened for the restoration of the female character to its proper lot and dignity, from which it had been degraded by the transgression of the first woman."

Such are the convictions of the whole body of the Shakers respecting the character and mission of their founder; and Joanna Southcott herself, in the days of her greatest popularity, was not more devoutly revered in England, or does not continue to receive greater homage from her followers there at present (who are as numerous, perhaps, as the disciples of Ann Lee), than is paid everywhere by the community of Shakers in America to Mother Ann, as she is always called, and whom they believe to be the last of the prophets, and second revelation of a Saviour to a lost world!

The progress and present state of the society in America they

* The following is the biographer's note on this passage: "The visions, prophecies, and revelations mentioned in this work will perhaps be rejected by an unbelieving world as the effects of enthusiasm, superstition, and fanaticism. But, though there may be many, even among the professors of Christianity, who, generally speaking, have no faith in such manifestations beyond the comprehension of their natural senses and daily experience, yet this cannot alter the truth nor disannul facts. Therefore, let the sneering unbeliever reflect that the same charge will equally apply to the prophets and saints of all preceding dispensations, who abounded in those gifts. Elijah went up in a fiery chariot, and a cloud received Jesus out of sight. The prophets saw many wonderful visions, and received many revelations, and by Divine inspiration delivered many remarkable prophecies of future events; and who has ever assured man that those who walk in the spirit of Christ, and enjoy communion with the heavenly world, shall not be able to see heavenly visions, and discern spiritual things, and be blessed with spiritual understanding, in this day, as well as under former dispensations? It is the darkness of a fallen nature which obscures the light of the soul, and the veil of the flesh which shuts celestial scenes from the view of man; but the Spirit of God is 'the same yesterday, to-day, and forever.'"

deem encouraging, considering the comparatively short time that has yet elapsed since its origin, and comparing it with the slow progress made for many years by the Gospel itself when first preached to the Gentiles. The following is the summary of their statistics on this head :

In the beginning of the year 1780 the society consisted of but about 10 or 12 persons, all of whom came from England. From this time there was a gradual and extensive increase in their numbers until the year 1787, when they began to collect at New-Lebanon. Here the Church was established, as a common centre of union for all who belonged to the society in various parts of the country. This still remains as the mother-church, being the first that was established ; all the societies in various parts of the country are considered branches of this ; and there are now 20 separate communities, numbering about 4000 members.

All these communities were formed previous to the year 1805. In that year a very remarkable excitement or agitation of the public mind on the subject of religion took place in Kentucky, and is known by the name of the "Kentucky Revival." The enthusiasm of the people seemed to be at its height, and the excitement was occasioned by the preaching of some Presbyterian missionaries who had been sent into the Western States from New-England. The Shakers hearing of this, and remembering a prophecy of Mother Ann, that the Western country would soon be opened to them, they sent forth, on the 1st of January, 1805, three chosen messengers to that distant region. They continued there for some time, enduring great opposition from all quarters, until the resistance to their farther progress seemed to have reached its height in 1810, when the following scene occurred, according to their own account :

"On the 27th of August, 1810, a body of 500 armed men, led on by officers in military array, appeared before the principal dwelling of the society in Union village. This formidable force was preceded and followed by a large concourse of spectators, of all descriptions of people, estimated at nearly 2000 in number, whose object was to witness the mighty conflict expected to take place between a body of 500 armed men and a few harmless and *defenceless Shakers*. Among this great concourse were many who were friendly to the society, and whose only wish was to prevent mischief and preserve peace ; but the far greater majority were either entire strangers or decided enemies, who came to support the military in case of necessity. Many of these were armed in mob array, some with guns and swords, some with bayonets fixed on poles or sticks of various lengths, and others with staves, hatchets, knives, and clubs. These formed a motley multitude of every description, from ragged boys to hoary-headed men, exhibiting altogether a hideous and grotesque appearance.

"But, notwithstanding all these threatening and warlike appearances, no confusion appeared among the believers throughout the day ; but they remained calm, peaceable, and undismayed, and attended to their usual occupations with as much regularity as the confused circumstances of the day would permit.

"This motley multitude having collected, and the troops having taken their station near the meeting-house, a deputation of twelve men came forward, headed by a Presbyterian preacher; and, after making a number of unreasonable and inconsistent demands (demands with which the leaders of the society had neither power nor authority to comply), they proceeded to state, as the principal requisition of this extraordinary concourse of armed men, that the society should relinquish their principles and practice, their public testimony, mode of worship, and manner of living, or quit the country. These extraordinary demands were accompanied with threats of violence in case of refusal.

"The answer of the society was calm and mild, but plain and positive: That they esteemed their faith in the Gospel dearer than their lives, and were therefore determined to maintain it, whatever they might suffer as the consequence; and as to quitting the country, they were upon their own possessions, which they had purchased with their own money, and for which they were indebted to no man; that they held no man's property, and therefore had a just right to the peaceable enjoyment of their own possessions in a free country, and were entitled to those liberties granted by the laws of their country, including the liberty of conscience."

The result of this mildness and firmness combined was exactly what it has always been in every instance in which it has been tried, among the Quakers especially, whose history is so full of instances in which the most violent hostile enemies have been disarmed and defeated by a pacific course: so true is the saying of Solomon, "A soft answer turneth away wrath." The consequences, too, of this religious persecution were like those of almost every other, with proofs of which the early annals of this country abound, namely, to strengthen the very cause it was intended to crush, and increase the number of those whom it was designed to annihilate, as will be seen by the following additions made to the communities of the Shakers in the Western States subsequent to 1810.

In Ohio there are two societies, one at Union Village, in the county of Warren, 30 miles northeast from Cincinnati, which contains nearly 600 members; and one at Beaver Creek, in the county of Montgomery, six miles southeast from Dayton, which contains 100 members. In Kentucky there are also two societies, one at Pleasant Hill, in Mercer county, 21 miles southwest of Lexington, containing nearly 500 members; the other at South Union, Jasper Springs, in Logan county, 15 miles northeast from Russellville, which contains nearly 400 members. In Indiana there is one society, at West Union, Knox county, 16 miles above Vincennes, which contains more than 200 members.

The following is the summing up or conclusion of the writer, in the chapter from which the preceding abridged account of the progress and present state of the society is derived, with his notes upon the text:

"The number of believers contained in all the societies, both in the Eastern and Western States, exceeds 4000. Two thirds, at least, of this

number have been added since the commencement of the present century; and the number is gradually increasing.*

"Most of the societies contain a number of large families, and each family is accommodated with one or more large and convenient dwelling-houses, and with shops and outhouses, for the convenience of carrying on the various branches of business pursued by the family. There is also in each society a house for public worship, and an office or offices for the transaction of public business.

"The principal employments of the people are agriculture, horticulture, and the various branches of domestic manufacture; of course, the principal articles of consumption among them are mostly of their own produce and manufacture; and their various mechanical branches furnish a variety of articles for market.

"Temperance and chastity, plainness and simplicity, neatness, industry, and good economy, are among those virtuous principles which actuate the people of the United Society in all their temporal concerns, and which tend greatly to promote the health and prosperity of the society, and ensure the blessings of Divine Providence upon all their labours. And it is found by many years' experience that this manner of life is more conducive to the general health of the body than any other with which we are acquainted; and this experience has also proved, that fewer deaths have occurred in the society since its establishment, in proportion to the number of people, than is usual among those who live after the common course of the world."†

* "We are far from feeling a disposition to proclaim our numbers to the world; but the inquiries which are continually made by strangers to ascertain our numbers, and the local situation of the different societies in our communion, have induced us to give a statement of these particulars. We are as yet but a small people, and few in number compared with the vast multitudes enrolled in the catalogues of other denominations; but when we consider the testimony of Jesus Christ, that 'strait is the gate and narrow is the way that leadeth unto life, and few there be that find it,' we cannot but feel a sense of thankfulness for that mercy of God which has called us to be numbered with the chosen few; and to us it is a matter of more importance to increase in the principles of peace and righteousness than to increase in numbers. Yet we feel a firm reliance upon the promises of God, by the mouth of his prophets: 'I will multiply them, and they shall not be few; I will also glorify them, and they shall not be small. A little one shall become a thousand, and a small one a strong nation: I the Lord will hasten it in his time.'—See Isa., lx., 22, and Jer., xxx., 19."—Note of the original volume.

† The ancients reckoned a generation to last 30 years, and the moderns have generally agreed that the life of man has not increased. From the commencement of the United Society in the year 1780 up to 1800, the average ages of those who deceased at New Lebanon and Watervliet exceeded 50 years. Since that period to the present time, the average ages of all that have deceased in these two societies amount to about 60 years. Though there was, in the beginning, at least an ordinary proportion of young children, and though many children have since been gathered into the society, yet only 5 have deceased under 10 years, and but 27 under 21 years of age.

CHAPTER VII.

Leading Peculiarities of the Sect of Shakers.—Community of Property in all the Families.—Celibacy of the entire Body, in both Sexes.—Non-existence of any Priesthood.—Use of the Dance in Religious Worship.—Rules for the Admission of new Members.—Order and Arrangement of the Society's Affairs.—Scriptural Authorities for Community of Property.

THE four leading peculiarities of the Shakers are: first, community of property; secondly, the celibacy of the entire body, in both sexes; thirdly, the non-existence of any priesthood; and, fourthly, the use of the dance in their religious worship. All these they defend on Scriptural authority, and quote very largely from the writings of the Old and New Testaments in confirmation of their views. Before entering on these, however, it may be well to give a brief view of the rules and principles by which they regulate the admission of members to their body, and those by which they are subsequently governed. The following are their rules for the admission of members:

"1. All persons who unite with the society must do it voluntarily and of their own free will.

"2. No one is permitted to do so without a full and clear understanding of all its obligations.

"3. No considerations of property are ever made use of to induce persons to join or to leave the society; because it is a principle of the sect, that no act of devotion or service that does not flow from the free and voluntary emotions of the heart can be acceptable to God as an act of true religion.

"4. No believing husband or wife is allowed, by the principles of this society, to separate from an unbelieving partner, except by mutual agreement, unless the conduct of the unbeliever be such as to warrant a separation by the laws of God and man. Nor can any husband or wife, who has otherwise abandoned his or her partner, be received into communion with the society.

"5. Any person becoming a member must rectify all his wrongs, and, as fast and as far as it is in his power, discharge all just and legal claims, whether of creditors or filial heirs. Nor can any person, not conforming to this rule, long remain in union with the society. But the society is not responsible for the debts of any individual, except by agreement; because such responsibility would involve a principle ruinous to the institution.

"6. No difference is to be made in the distribution of parental estate among the heirs, whether they belong to the society or not; but an equal partition must be made, as far as may be practicable and consistent with reason and justice.

"7. If an unbelieving wife separate from a believing husband by agreement, the husband must give her a just and reasonable share of the property; and if they have children who have arrived at years of understanding sufficient to judge for themselves, and who choose to go with their mother, they are not to be disinherited on that account. Though

the character of this institution has been much censured on this ground, yet we boldly assert that the rule above stated has never, to our knowledge, been violated by this society.

"8. Industry, temperance, and frugality are prominent features of this institution. No member who is able to labour can be permitted to live idly upon the labours of others. All are required to be employed in some manual occupation, according to their several abilities, when not engaged in other necessary duties."

Of the system of government exercised by the society over those who are admitted, the following is a brief description :

"As all persons enter voluntarily, so they may voluntarily withdraw ; but, while they remain members, they are required to obey the regulations of the society.

"The leading authority of the society is vested in a ministry, generally consisting of four persons, including both sexes. These, together with the elders and trustees, constitute the general government of the society in all its branches.

"No creed can be framed to limit the progress of improvement. It is the faith of the society that the operations of Divine light are unlimited. All are at liberty to improve their talents and exercise their gifts, the younger being subject to the elder.

"In the order and government of the society, no corporeal punishment is approved, nor any external force or violence exercised on any rational person who has come to years of understanding. Faith, conscience, and reason are deemed sufficient to influence a rational being ; but where these are wanting, the necessary and proper means of restraint are not prohibited.

"The management of temporal affairs in families holding a united interest, as far as respects the consecrated property of the society, is committed to trustees. These are appointed by the ministry and elders, and are legally invested with the fee of the real estate belonging to the society. But all the transactions of the trustees must be for the united benefit of the society, and not for any personal or private use or purpose whatever. And in all these things they are strictly responsible to the leading authority of the society for the faithful performance of their duty."

The following is given as the order and arrangement of the society, when fully organized, according to the same authority :

The community is divided into several different branches, commonly called families. This division is generally made for the sake of convenience, and is often rendered necessary on account of local situation and other circumstances ; but the proper division and arrangement of the community, without respect to local situation, is into three classes, or progressive degrees of order, as follows :

The first, or novitiate, class are those who receive faith, and come into a degree of relation with the society, but choose to live in their own families, and manage their own temporal concerns. Any one who prefer it may live in this manner, and be owned as brethren and sisters in the Gospel, so long as they live up to its requirements. Parents are required to be kind and dutiful to each other, to shun every appearance of evil, provide for their family, bring up their

children in a godly manner, use, improve, and dispose of their property wisely, and manage their affairs according to their own discretion.

The second, or junior, class is composed of persons who, not having the charge of families, and being under no embarrassments to hinder them from uniting together in community, choose to enjoy the benefits of that situation. These (for mutual safety) enter into a contract to devote their services, freely, to support the interest of the family of which they are members, so long as they continue in that order; stipulating, at the same time, to claim no pecuniary compensation for their services. The property itself may be resumed at any time according to the contract, but no interest can be claimed for the use of it. Members of this class may retain the ownership of all their property as long as they think proper; but at any time, after having gained sufficient experience to be able to act deliberately, they may devote a part or the whole to the support of the institution. This, however, is a matter of free choice; no one is urged to do so; they are rather advised in such cases to consider the matter well, so as not to do it until they have a full understanding of its consequences, lest they should do it prematurely, and afterward repent.

The third, or senior, class is composed of such persons as have had sufficient time and opportunity practically to approve the faith and manner of life practised in the society, and are thus prepared to enter voluntarily into a united interest. These agree to dedicate themselves, body and mind, with all that they possess, to the service of God and the support of the Gospel forever. No person can be received into this order until he shall have settled all just and legal claims, both of creditors and filial heirs; so that whatever property he may possess may be justly and truly his own. Minors cannot be admitted as members of this order, yet they may be received under its immediate care and protection. And when they have arrived at lawful age, if they choose to continue in the society, and sign the covenant of the order, they are then admitted to all the privileges of members. The members of this order are all equally entitled to its benefits and privileges, without any difference on account of what any one may have contributed to the interest of the society. All are equally entitled to their support and maintenance, whether in health, sickness, or old age, so long as they continue to maintain the principles, and conform to the rules and regulations of the institution. They give their property and services for the most valuable of all temporal considerations: an ample security during life for every needful support, if they continue faithful to their contract and covenant, the nature of which they clearly understand before they enter into it.

On these principles the society has now been governed for more than half a century, with a constant increase of members, increase

of property, and no diminution in zeal or decline of purity in morals. The experiment, therefore, has lasted long enough, as they believe, to be considered free from all chances of failure; and although it has been repeatedly alleged that disputes have sprung up between them and seceding members as to claims of property, their answer to these imputations is given in the following paragraph:

"During a period of more than fifty years since the permanent establishment of this society at New-Lebanon and Watervliet, there never has been a legal claim entered by any person for the recovery of property brought into the society; but all claims of that nature, if any have existed, have been amicably settled to the satisfaction of the parties concerned. Complaints and legal prosecutions have not hitherto come from persons who brought property into the institution, but from those who came destitute of property, and who, generally speaking, have been no benefit to the society in any way; but, on the contrary, after having enjoyed its hospitality, and brought no small share of trouble upon the people, have had the assurance to lay claim to wages which they never earned, or property to which they never had any just or legal claim."

The institution is, therefore, nearly as old as the American Union, having been planted only four years after the Declaration of Independence; and, as far as length of past duration can be received as a pledge of future stability, they think that they stand on as high ground as the republic, with the advantage of adding a Divine origin to self-preserving or conservative principles, which run through every part of their doctrine, discipline, and government.

For the practice of throwing all their property, whether much or little, into one common stock, and improving it for the benefit of the whole community, they cite the authority of Christ and his disciples, as well as the early Christians mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, iv., 32. They say:

"It is doubtless generally understood that Jesus Christ and his little family of disciples all fared alike, being chiefly dependant on the contents of the same scrip for their temporal support. The primitive Church at Jerusalem was also founded on a united interest. 'And the multitude of them that believed were of one heart and one soul; neither said any of them that aught of the things which he possessed was his own; but they had all things common.'

"Thus they divested themselves of all selfishness, and, like a band of disinterested brethren and sisters, lived in love and harmony, and all fared alike. These amiable examples were designed as a pattern for Christians; and had all who have since professed that name been led by the true spirit of the Gospel, and carefully conformed to this pattern, what an amiable and harmonious band of Christian nations might, long ere this day, have existed upon earth!

"The advice of Jesus Christ to the rich man, who desired to know what he should do to inherit eternal life, is an instructive lesson to the rich.* Origen, who lived in the latter part of the second century, has related this circumstance, as recorded in a book (now lost) entitled 'The Gospel according to the Hebrews.' It is given by Origen in the Greek language, and quoted by Lardner, who gives the following translation:

* See Matt., xix., 21. Mark, x., 21, and Luke, xviii., 22.

“ ‘A certain rich man said to him, Master, what good thing shall I do, that I may live ? He said unto him, Man, keep the law and the prophets. He answered him, That I have done. He said unto him, Go sell all that thou hast, and distribute among the poor, and come follow me. But the rich man began to scratch his head, and it did not please him. And the Lord said unto him, How sayest thou, I have kept the law and the prophets ! seeing it is written in the law, thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself ; and, behold, many of thy brethren, sons of Abraham, are clothed with rags, ready to perish for hunger, while thy house is filled with all sorts of good things, and nothing goes out of it to them. And turning about, he said to his disciple Simon, who was sitting by him, Simon, son of Joanna, it is easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of heaven.’ ”*

“ Let every professor of Christianity, and especially those who possess property, apply the case to himself, and then ask his own soul what reward he has a right to expect hereafter for his profession, without a real and actual devotion of substantial service, with all he possesses, to God. Can he expect a substantial reward for professed services, empty prayers, and formal ceremonies, which cost him little or nothing, and which afford his poor neighbours, and even his fellow-Christians, no real benefit, temporal or spiritual, to soul or body ! ”

As far as the history of the Shakers can establish the fact, it has certainly shown that, where property is held in community, and not individually, the disposition to bestow it in works of charity and benevolence to others is greatly increased. And that the property itself is better managed for accumulation and preservation, no one can doubt who has watched the progressive advancement which this society has made in the augmentation, as well as improvement, of its possessions, and in the neatness, order, and perfection by which everything they do or make is characterized : this is so much the case, that over all the United States, the seeds, plants, fruits, grain, cattle, and manufactures furnished by any settlement of Shakers bears a premium in the market above the ordinary price of similar articles from other establishments. There being no idleness among them, all are productive. There being no intemperance among them, none are destructive. There being no misers among them, nothing is hoarded, or made to perish for want of use ; so that while production and improvement are at their maximum, and waste and destruction at their minimum, the society must go on increasing the extent and value of its temporal possessions, and thus increase its means of doing good, first within, and then beyond its own circle.

In support of the soundness of the principle that co-operation is more productive of advantage to a community than competition, the history of the Shakers furnishes an irresistible proof ; and if this doctrine had been unmixed with any peculiarities of moral or religious views, it would have spread more widely ; for the principle is no doubt sound in itself, though often clouded and retarded in its progress, sometimes by having too little, and sometimes too much of religious belief mixed up with it by its respective advocates.

* See Lardner's Works, vol. ii., p. 505.

CHAPTER VIII.

Peculiar Opinions as to the original Sin of Adam and Eve.—Scriptural Authorities in support of these Views.—Milton's *Paradise Lost*.—Curse denounced on Woman at the Fall.—Fulfilment of this in the Punishment of Child-bearing.—Peculiar Crimes of the antediluvian World.—Child-bearing of Sarah in her old Age.—First Instance of a Child being conceived through Faith alone.—Examples and Illustrations from the Mosaic Law.—Authority of Mr. Wilberforce quoted by the Shakers.—Profligacy of the Sexes during the Reign of Antichrist.—Early Conduct of Church-reformers, Luther and Calvin.—Authority of John Wesley in Support of Celibacy.—Birth and Example of the Saviour.—Opinions of the Apostles on the Subject of Marriage.—Reply of Jesus to the Sadducees touching Wives and Husbands.—The chosen Saints in Heaven "not defiled with Women."—Answers of the Shakers to the Objections urged against them.—Admission of the utility of Marriage to the "World's People."—Practice of clapping the Hands and Dancing, used in their Worship.—Examples of Miriam, Jephthah, and David.—Scriptural Commands to clap the Hands, to sing, and dance.—Answer to the Objections made to these Practices.—General Reflections on the Sect and their Peculiarities.

On the subject of abstaining from marriage, the authorities and reasonings of the Shakers are very full. They seem to have thought that this was the most difficult part of their system to render intelligible and acceptable to the world, and they have accordingly laboured with corresponding diligence to justify their opinions and practices in this respect, by an abundant quotation of Scriptural authorities.

They begin by endeavouring to show that the fall of our first parents, Adam and Eve, consisted, not in the eating of the fruit which grew on the "tree of knowledge," but in that which the eating of this fruit excited them subsequently to acquire, namely, that criminal knowledge of each other, which they contend was the first act of sin and first cause of shame, as expressed in the book of Genesis, iii., 7. And, as an illustration of the process of the birth of sin from this communion, they quote the expressions of the apostle James, i., 14, 15.

On this subject, of the nature of the original sin committed by our first parents Adam and Eve, and by them transmitted to all their posterity, the following passages are selected from a large mass of others, as being those which are the most intelligible, and without which no just estimate could be conveyed, either of their own views on this subject, or of the reasonings and authorities on which they are founded:

"While the man and the woman stood in uprightness and innocence, they were both naked, and were not ashamed," Gen., ii., 25, which certainly implies not only that their nakedness was no just cause of shame, but that they never could have known it had their innocence continued.

"Before the fall they doubtless knew that they had no clothing; but now their eyes were opened, and they had acquired a criminal knowl-

edge, and became sensible of a passion to which they had ever before been strangers, namely, shame.

"The origin of this will be easier to account for, if we suppose, with some, that the juice of this tree was inebriating, since we know from common observation that juices of such a quality will excite strange commotions in the animal frame, and give a strong predominance to the animal appetites.

"Under these circumstances we need not wonder at the subterfuges to which they ran, since it is never expected that the conduct of persons under the power of intoxication or the oppression of guilt should be perfectly consistent with the rules of cool reflection.

"According to the above, shame was the effect of a criminal knowledge, which is most strictly true. By eating the forbidden fruit, they knew that they were naked: and hence that shameful act is so commonly expressed by the term knowing."*—Gen., iv., 1-25.

It is not assumed that the production of offspring was not intended by God to take place between Adam and Eve; but it is believed by the Shakers that this was to be under subjection to certain laws of times and seasons; to be considered as a solemn and religious duty, for the mere purpose of multiplying their race, and with feelings the most remote from those of mere concupiscence. They insist that this would have been the case in the fulness of time, if Adam and Eve had preserved their original innocence by obedience; but by transgressing the command of God, in eating of the fruit which he had forbidden, they yielded, in the language of Milton, to the "carnal desire" with which this fruit inflamed them, and thus sinned by a *premature* and *guilty* commission of an act which, if performed at a later period and with other motives, would have been innocent and honourable; just as, with the world at present, the giving birth to offspring before marriage is deemed guilty and degrading, though the same event after marriage is by the same persons regarded as perfectly innocent and honourable. Therefore it is they express themselves, as in the following paragraph:

"It must be granted by all that God formed the woman for the man, and gave her to him, and commanded them to be fruitful: at least, it was a natural law established in them by the order of creation. But how were they fruitful? Did God own that for real fruit which they brought forth?

"The effect must be like its cause. 'A good tree cannot bring forth evil fruit.' Their first fruit was a murderer, which proved that the cause from which he sprang was something wholly different from the original and pure law of nature. As it is written, 'Cain was of that wicked one, and slew his brother;' hence it is certain that he was not

* Milton gives a striking description of the effects of the forbidden fruit on Adam and Eve in the following lines:

"But that false fruit
Carnal desire inflaming; he on Eve
Began to cast lascivious eyes, she him
As wantonly repaid; in lust they burn."

Paradise Lost, Book xi.

begotten of God, nor according to his will, but through the lusts of 'the wicked one.'

"Therefore we say, if there be a man and woman now existing on the earth, honestly united in a covenant of promise to each other, who have so much of the fear of God as never to gratify their desires in any other manner than with the sole motive to obey the will of God, they are verily an honour to the original law of nature, a blessing to themselves and posterity, and an example to the human race."

The difficulty of living in a state of wedlock, and conforming to this standard of purity which is here set up, is so great, however, in the estimation of the Shakers, that they deem the only safe mode of life to be that of complete separation in the sexes: accordingly, not only do they themselves live separately in their communities, but if "people of the world," as strangers are called by them, visit their establishments and are obliged to remain all night, they separate husband and wife without scruple, and put them to sleep in different apartments.

In following out the exposition of their views on this subject of the first origin of sin and its inevitable consequences, they offer the following array of authorities and opinions:

"It is granted that sin is the first cause of shame; for when Adam and Eve stood in a state of innocence, they were both naked, and were not ashamed. But no sooner had they transgressed than they felt shame, and made themselves aprons of fig-leaves to cover themselves with.

"If their transgression is to be considered in a literal sense, and not as represented in a figure, why did not the shame fall upon the hand that took the fruit, and the mouth that ate it?

"But it does not appear that God took any notice of the hand or the mouth in pronouncing the curse which they had merited; for these are the words of the Scriptures:

"And God said unto the woman, I will greatly multiply thy sorrow and thy conception: in sorrow shalt thou bring forth children; and thy desire shall be to thy husband, and he shall rule over thee.*"

"Why multiply her sorrow and her conception? Why not punish her in some other way? Because God distributes punishments according to the nature of the crime.

"Hence, from the very nature of the curse denounced upon the woman, it is easy to see wherein the offence lay."

As regards the man, they contend that the superior power, or predominating influence of carnal desire over every other feeling of his nature, is itself a proof of its being the poison left as a taint of the original sin; and this view they support by the following arguments:

"Man, under its influence, bears everything before him with impetuosity. No other object that can be presented attracts his notice while that is in view; his ears are stopped to every other sound but the voice of the charmer; he is insensible to every other pleasure.

"Surely, then, that must be the fountain-head, the governing power that shuts the eyes, stops the ears, and stupifies the sense to all other

* Genesis, iii. 16.

objects of time and eternity, and swallows up the whole man in its own peculiar enjoyment.

"And such is that feeling and affection which is formed by the near relation and tie between the male and female, and which, being corrupted by the subversion of the original law of God, converted that which in the beginning was pure and lovely into the poison of the serpent, and the noblest affection of man into the seat of human corruption."

Another proof, as the Shakers conceive, of the truth of their position as to the nature of original sin, and the effects produced by it on the first generations of men, is to be found in the history of the antediluvian world, and the character of the crimes by which it was polluted; crimes so offensive to the Deity that he resolved to sweep the perpetrators of them from off the face of the earth by a deluge. This is stated by them at great length, and supported by reference to the book of Genesis, vi, 1-13.

A farther argument, as the Shakers conceive, in favour of the Divine disapprobation of the sin adverted to, is to be found in the history of Abraham and Sarah, and the son born to them through faith in their old age, for which they refer to the following passages of Scripture: Genesis, chap. xvii. and xviii., and Hebrews, chap. xi.

The injunctions and prohibitions of the Levitical law under Moses are next cited, to prove that, by that Divine lawgiver, the same sentiments were entertained as those professed by the Shakers themselves; and these are the passages of Scripture cited by them on this head: Numbers, c. xix., v. 20, 22; Deuteronomy, c. xxiii., v. 10, 11; Numbers, c. xii., v. 14; Hebrews, c. xiii., v. 13; Leviticus, c. xv., v. 16, 17, 18, 32; c. xxii., v. 4, 5, 6; Jude, 23; Leviticus, c. xii., v. 2, 7.

"Thus," say the Shakers, "a mother among the Hebrews could touch no hallowed thing, nor come into the sanctuary, until the days of her purifying were fulfilled, which were forty days for a male child, and eighty days if she brought forth a female child. And, in order to be restored, she was required to bring a burnt-offering and a sin-offering to make an atonement; a sin-offering unto the Lord, made by fire.* Moses also, in communicating the commands of God to the people, and bidding them prepare and sanctify themselves for coming to his presence, when the Law was to be delivered on Mount Sinai, expressly enjoins on them the abstinence which the Shakers themselves practise and recommend."†

It is remarkable that the late Mr. Wilberforce, our English statesman and philanthropist, should be quoted by the Shakers in support of their views on this subject, though the passages they cite certainly bear the import assigned to them, namely, that there is a secret cause of sin, which is carefully concealed in all our general confessions; and this hidden and original taint, they contend, is the uncontrollable dominion of this powerful passion. The following are the passages from Mr. Wilberforce's volume on Religion:

* Leviticus, c. ii., v. 13.

† Exodus, c. xix., v. 15.

“ ‘But, though these effects of human depravity,’ says the writer, ‘are everywhere acknowledged and lamented, we must not expect to find them traced to their true origin. *Causa latet, vis est notissima*;’ i. e., the cause lies concealed, the effect is notorious.*

“ ‘How, on any principles of common reasoning, can we account for it (this corruption), but by conceiving that man, since he came out of the hands of the Creator, has contracted a taint, and that the venom of this subtle poison has been communicated throughout the race of Adam, everywhere exhibiting incontestable marks of its fatal malignity.

“ ‘Sensual gratifications and illicit affections have debased our nobler powers, and indisposed our hearts to the discovery of God. By a repetition of vicious acts, evil habits have been formed within us, and have riveted the fetters of sin. All, without exception, in a greater or less degree, bear about them, more visible or more concealed, the ignominious marks of their captivity.

“ ‘Such, on a full and fair investigation, must be confessed to be the state of facts; and how can this be accounted for on any other supposition, than that of some original taint, some radical principal of corruption? All other solutions are unsatisfactory, while the potent cause which has been assigned does abundantly, and can alone sufficiently, account for the effect.’ So says Wilberforce, and that with the greatest reason and truth. Then let it be so.”

It is next contended that one of the most striking characteristics of the reign of Antichrist was the prevalence of illicit indulgences even among that particular order of priesthood, the Catholic, which professedly declared their abhorrence of them by taking an oath to abstain from such gratifications.

“ ‘Hence,’ say the Shakers, “ ‘their mock institutions were eventually productive of millions of lazy, useless beings, who for ages were a common pest to civil society. True, these monastics and conventuals professed continence and chastity, and under this profession claimed a sumptuous living from more virtuous citizens. But how abundantly was their hypocrisy detected, and their horrid licentiousness exposed! So much so, indeed, that a convent or nunnery is a very proverb of contempt to this day.”

Nor were the church reformers, Luther and Calvin, much better, according to the opinion of the Shakers, who, in their testimony on this subject, have many striking passages from ecclesiastical history, of which the following are only a few:

“ ‘When Dr. Carlostadt broke his solemn oath of perpetual continence which he had made to God, what kind of a reforming spirit did Luther manifest? In his letter to Amsdorff he very plainly shows what he was most intent on promoting, as appears from the following words: ‘The nuptials of Carlostadt please me wonderfully; the Lord strengthen him in the good example!’†

“ ‘But as Carlostadt put off his veil of hypocrisy, and made a regular and bold provision for the works of the flesh, it was counted a good example, and Luther himself soon after followed it. He married a nun whose name was Catharine à Bora, whereby both of them broke their solemn vows of continency which they had made before God.

* Wilberforce on Religion, Boston ed., 1803, p. 17, 18.

† The original extract of this letter, in Luther's own words, runs thus: “Carlostadii nuptiæ mire placent; novi puellam; confortet eum Dominus in bonum exemplum inhibendæ et minuendæ papisticæ libidinis.”

"Bishop Chaloner, after stating Luther's general character, very properly adds, 'But what was the most scandalous in a pretended restorer of the purity of religion, was his marrying a nun, after the most solemn vows, by which both he and she had consecrated themselves to God in the state of perpetual continency.'"

"John Calvin was originally designed for the Church, and had actually obtained a benefice ;† of course he must have come under the common oath of continency ; yet it seems that he was not subject to the law, which saith concerning the high-priest among his brethren, that 'a widow shall he not take, but he shall take a virgin of his own people to wife.'‡

"Nor was he subject to the example of Jesus Christ, nor to his own solemn oath ; for 'he married the widow of an Anabaptist at Strasburg.'§ And thus, according to the law, he profaned his office in the highest degree, by mixing with a people who were condemned, both by Papists and Protestants, as heretics, and counted by Luther himself no better than mad dogs."

A contrast is then offered by the Shakers, in the language of Mr. Wilberforce, in his book on Religion, where he offers a commentary on the Christian precept, "Mortify the flesh with its affections and lusts ;" and the following passage is also given from the celebrated John Wesley :

"Again, says John Wesley, 'There are eunuchs who have made themselves eunuchs for the kingdom of heaven's sake—happy they ! who have abstained from marriage (though without condemning or despising it) that they might walk more closely with God ! He that is able to receive it, let him receive it.'"

The last authorities for leading a life of continency and chastity used by the Shakers are taken from the New Testament, and drawn not only from the life and conduct of the Saviour and his apostles, but from their precepts and injunctions to those who followed after them. Among the arguments used by them are the following :

"Jesus Christ was born of a virgin. Thus a pure virgin character was chosen to receive the first seed of the New Creation ; an incontestable evidence of the pure nature of that work which he was sent to introduce into the world, for the salvation and redemption of mankind from that impure nature in which they were begotten. And as his conception was without impurity, it teaches us that, at the first entrance of souls into the life of Christ, they must reject that very impurity which was first rejected in his conception.

"The miraculous birth of Jesus Christ by a virgin also shows that in him the work of natural generation ceased, and a new and spiritual creation commenced. Hence, in the regeneration, all who are begotten of Christ must necessarily cease from that work, or lose that spiritual life which they receive from him.

"The devout Jews esteemed the virgin life the most pure ; and virgins were often honoured with prophetic oracles and gifts of the Spirit, when such manifestations of Divine favour were almost entirely withdrawn from all other classes of people among them. Josephus informs

* Grounds of Catholic Doctrine, p. 54.

† Lev., xxi., 13, 14.

‡ Wesley's Notes on Matt., xix., 20.

§ Eccl. Hist., vol. iv., p. 87, note [a].

¶ Eccl. Researches, p. 541.

us that the Essenes, who maintained the virtue of continence, were many of them favoured with Divine revelations.*

"In the days of the apostles virgins were particularly honoured with the Spirit of God. The daughters of Philip the evangelist were virgins, and were blessed with prophetic gifts.† It is stated by Dr. Horneck that, in the days of the primitive Christians, 'Thousands of their virgins freely dedicated themselves to God, and would be married to none but him; and though many times they were tempted by rich fortunes, yet nothing could alter their resolutions.‡

"But the most plain and pointed testimony of the apostle in favour of a virgin life is given in the seventh chapter of his first epistle to the Corinthians, by which he clearly shows the wide difference between virgin purity and its opposite; and in which he prophetically points to a day of more perfect purity, when all such indulgences must come to an end. And all the attempts of modern Christians to draw from the apostle's doctrine any license to indulge their propensities, are but so many evidences of the depraved state of their own minds, and their ignorance of the true nature of that gospel purity which the apostle is so careful to impress upon the minds of the Corinthian Christians.

"'He that is married careth for the things that are of the world, how he may please his wife.' Also, 'she that is married careth for the things of the world, how she may please her husband.' But the unmarried, or those who live a virgin life,§ 'care for the things of the Lord, how they may be holy, both in body and in spirit.' 'I would that all men were even as I myself,' says the apostle, who himself was not married. 'I say, therefore, to the unmarried and widows, it is good for them if they abide even as I.'||

As to the authority of the Saviour himself on the subject of marriage, the Shakers contend that it may be fairly inferred that he held it to be unsuited to those who were to live a life of holiness; first, in the fact of his not being the fruit of marriage; and, secondly, by his abstaining himself from such an institution or alliance; and this they consider to be greatly strengthened by his reply to the Sadducees on a question respecting marriage, of which the following is their version:

"When the Sadducees, who denied the resurrection of the soul and the very existence of a spiritual world, questioned with Jesus concerning the woman who had been the wife of seven husbands, whose wife she should be in the resurrection, his answer was, 'The children of this world marry and are given in marriage; but they which shall be accounted worthy to obtain that world and the resurrection from the dead, neither marry, nor are given in marriage. Neither can they die any more, for they are equal unto the angels; and are the children of God, being the children of the resurrection.'¶

And, lastly, to carry out their authorities to the very end of the Scriptural records, they quote the following remarkable passage from the book of Revelations of St. John:

* It is worthy of remark, that the Essenes were the only sect of the Jews whom Jesus did not expressly reprove.

† See Acts, xxi., 9.

‡ See Wesley's Christian Library, vol. xxix., p. 136.

§ It is evident that the apostle here alluded to those who really lived a virgin life for Christ's sake and the gospel's, and not to those who were merely unmarried, and yet lived in carnal indulgences.

|| 1 Corinth., vii., 8.

¶ Luke, xx., 36.

“‘And I looked, and lo! a Lamb stood on the Mount Zion, and with him a hundred forty and four thousand, having his Father’s name written in their foreheads.’* But who are these hundred and forty-four thousand? ‘These are they which were not defiled with women: for they are virgins.’

“Some suppose this to include that particular number only who will attain to that honour. Be this as it may, it is a striking evidence that none but those who live a virgin life can obtain so great a privilege; and therefore such a life must not only be the most acceptable in the sight of God and the Lamb, but is that alone which can stand with the Lamb on Mount Zion.

“‘These are they which follow the Lamb whithersoever he goeth.’ That is, they walk in perfect obedience to the law of Christ, and follow his example in all purity and holiness; not defiling themselves with women, nor living in any uncleanness, or in any selfish gratification whatever.”

The Shakers, however, are not content with this array of scriptural authorities, from Genesis to Revelation, in favour of their views as to the nature of the original sin, and the expediency and propriety of a life of celibacy, but they boldly and frankly undertake to answer the objections urged by the world in general to the doctrines in question. In this they are as elaborate as in the exhibition of their original authorities; but without following them through all they have said on this subject, one example of the manner in which they answer these objections is worth giving, as a specimen of the reasoning used, and the spirit and feeling with which their arguments are urged.

“Objection: Jesus Christ himself did not condemn marriage; but, on the contrary, he not only honoured a marriage with his presence, but gave it an extraordinary and most miraculous sanction, by turning water into wine for the guests to drink. What greater evidence could any one ask to prove his Divine approbation!

“Answer: His enemies adopted the same mode of reasoning to prove him a ‘gluttonous man and a wine-bibber, a friend of publicans and sinners;’ and doubtless they felt as much confidence in the strength of their arguments as our objectors do in theirs. And why should they not? Did he not honour with his presence the assemblies of publicans and harlots? Did he not eat and drink with them, and work miracles for them? And where was the Pharisee that would not have condemned a man for a wine-bibber and a promoter of drunkenness, who would go and turn so much water into wine ‘after men had well drunk!’ And could any man that would frequent the assemblies of such base characters escape the scandal of being a partaker with them, or the charge of encouraging them in their wickedness?

“So reasoned the Scribes and Pharisees, and so will all carnal men reason when they want to subvert the testimony of truth for the purpose of promoting their own carnal views. But with all their reasoning and all their evidence, they could never prove that the Lord Jesus ever sanctioned the evil practices of these sinners, or authorized them to continue in sin. It is true he did not condemn this darling practice of the world, nor did he condemn the adulteress, though she was taken in the very act; but, after convicting her accusers, he bid her ‘go and sin no more.’ He was not sent into the world to condemn the world; that was not

* Revelation, xiv., 1-5.

the object of his mission; 'but that the world through him might be saved.'**

The Shakers conclude the defence of their own celibacy by admitting the utility of marriage as a civil institution for such of the inhabitants of the world as are still living in a natural state; but they hold that the utility of the institution altogether ceases when men and women become true Christians and join in Christian communities. Their views on this subject should be given in their own language. They say,

"We consider matrimony to be a civil institution, and, as such, it is both useful and necessary for mankind in their natural state; but it does not belong to the true followers of Christ, and for that reason they have nothing to do with it. As members of a Christian institution, established by the law of Christ, and wholly unconnected with the civil, political, and religious institutions of the world, it is inconsistent with our Christian faith to interfere with any of their concerns. At the same time, we are perfectly willing that every such institution, which produces any beneficial influence on its members, should be freely supported by those to whom it belongs, and whose concern it is to support it; and it is right and just that all people should act according to their own faith in this, as well as in all other matters.

"But though we acknowledge the marriage institution to be both useful and necessary for the world in its present state, yet for the followers of Christ, who are called to forsake the course of the world, and to 'crucify the flesh with all its affections,' it is neither necessary nor useful, but the contrary; it therefore forms no part of their duty, and can have no place among them."

Such are the views of the Shakers on this question, and such the authorities on which they defend them. The only other peculiarity in their practice which remains to be mentioned is that of their using dancing and clapping of hands, as well as singing, in their worship. On this subject, too, they fortify themselves with abundant scriptural authorities; and the following may be taken as a brief and condensed statement of these in their own words:

"The exercise of dancing in the worship of God was brought to light, not as an exercise of human invention, instituted by human authority, but as a manifestation of the will of God, through the special operations of his Divine power.

"When the children of Israel were delivered from their Egyptian bondage (which was a striking figure of the redemption of God's people from the dominion of sin), Moses and the children of Israel sung unto the Lord a song of thanksgiving for their deliverance. And Miriam the prophetess, the sister of Aaron, took a timbrel in her hand; and all the women went out after her, with timbrels and with dances. Also, when Jephthah returned from his victory over the children of Ammon, 'his daughter came out to meet him with timbrels and with dances.' So also, after the victory of David and the Israelites over Goliath and the Philistine armies, 'the women came out of all the cities of Israel, singing and dancing.' And again: at the yearly feast of the Lord in Shiloh, the daughters of Shiloh came out 'to dance in dances.' And when the ark of God was removed and established in the city of David, the occa-

* John, ch. iii., v. 17.

sion was celebrated by the same exercise: 'David and all Israel danced before the Lord.'

"We are aware that a strong prejudice prevails against the exercise of dancing as an act of Divine worship, in consequence of its having been for many ages perverted to the service of the wicked. But we would seriously ask whether the same objections will not operate still more forcibly against singing as an act of Divine worship? Music unconnected with dancing is doubtless much more generally used as an amusement of the wicked. The talents of poetry and music, exclusive of their connexion with dancing, are still far more abused by being devoted to base purposes.

"Is there a single base passion or evil propensity in human nature which has not been more or less excited, indulged, and gratified by means of poetical and musical compositions? How often have the angry passions been roused by war-songs, that urged mankind to mutual butchery, blood, and slaughter? How often have the lascivious passions been excited and indulged by obscene songs? How often is morality set at naught, and piety and religion abused, yea, and the name of God and all sacred things blasphemed by the wicked, in their profane songs? How often has vice been exalted, virtue depressed, and villany imboldened in crimes, by songs calculated and used for those very purposes? Do not the revels of drunkards and profane swearers often owe their excesses to their bacchanalian songs as well as to their bottles?

"In short, have not thefts, robberies, and murders, and, indeed, every species of villany, been much more excited and encouraged by music than by dancing? And yet music has been encouraged and practised as a part of Divine worship by nearly all denominations, while dancing has been condemned and excluded. But upon what principle? Why, truly upon this: 'That dancing cannot be an acceptable mode of worship, because it is practised in the carnal recreations of the wicked!' Yet no reader of the Scriptures can doubt but that dancing was acceptable to God as an exercise of religious worship in times past, and will be in time to come, according to the prediction of the prophet:

"Again I will build thee, and thou shalt be built, O virgin of Israel! thou shalt again be adorned with thy tabrets, and shalt go forth in the dances of them that make merry. Then shall the virgin rejoice in the dance, both young men and old together. Turn again, O virgin of Israel! turn again to these thy cities.*

"God requires the faithful improvement of every created talent. 'O clap your hands, all ye people; shout unto God with the voice of triumph. Sing unto the Lord a new song; sing his praise in the congregation of the saints. Let the children of Zion be joyful in their King; let them praise his name in the dance.†

"These expressions of the inspired Psalmist are worthy of serious consideration. Do they not evidently imply that the Divine Spirit which dictated them requires the devotion of all our faculties in the service of God? How, then, can any people professing religion expect to find acceptance with God by the service of the tongue only?

"Since we are blessed with hands and feet, those active and useful members of the body on which we mostly depend in our own service, shall we not acknowledge our obligations to God who gave them by exercising them in our devotions to him? There is too powerful a connexion between the body and mind, and too strong an influence of the mind upon the body, to admit of much activity of mind in the service of God without the co-operating exercises of the body. But where the heart is sincerely and fervently engaged in the service of God, it has a tendency to produce an active influence on the body."

* Jeremiah, c. 31, v. 4, 13, 21.

† Psa. xlvii., 1, and cxlix., 1, 2, 3.

To those who have witnessed the effects of music in quickening the devotional feelings of both Catholic and Protestant, and the effect of clapping of hands and other expressions of sympathy in crowded assemblies, there can be no difficulty in understanding that the same class of feelings may be much heightened by the exercises of the dance, so that, supposing the object of using it as a part of their worship to be the quickening of this feeling among the devotees, there is a perfect adaptation of means to ends, and a consistency in the application of them.

Strange as these doctrines and practices of the Shakers may appear to all but members of their own body, we should not forget that all new modes of faith and worship appear strange to those who hear of or witness them for the first time, and that habit alone renders them perfectly reasonable and acceptable to those who practise them from their infancy, whether Pagan, Jewish, Mohammedan, or Christian. From every inquiry I could make, however, of those longest resident in the neighbourhood of the Shakers, I could learn no authenticated case of evil practices among them. On the contrary, every one appeared ready to bear testimony to their honesty, punctuality, industry, sobriety, and chastity.

The instances are very few indeed in which there have been any secessions from their society, while additions are made to their numbers every year; and as they have within themselves the means of increasing prosperity and abundance—of contentment with their temporal wealth, and satisfaction with their spiritual exercises—there seems no reason to apprehend their speedy decline, especially as they are relieved from some of the most prolific sources of quarrel and strife among mankind in general. They have no individual property, but hold all their worldly goods in common. By this alone, all contentions about property, which forms the subject of half the contentions of the world, are abolished. They have no political or priestly rulers; and, therefore, all the evils of party contention in politics, and secular and clerical disputes for power and pre-eminence, are banished from their community. They have no idleness and no intemperance, the two fruitful mothers of crime, vice, and remorse of conscience; and this again assures them great tranquillity, in their freedom from all the evils which these two sources are sure to engender.

Supposing them to be sincerely convinced of the truth of their doctrines and the propriety of their practices, and to be voluntary members of the community—on both of which there is the strongest evidence of the affirmative, while of the negative there is no evidence at all—I can conceive them to be a very happy community within themselves, and productive of no political or moral evils to the neighbourhood in which they are planted, or to the country over which they may be spread. I say this frankly, but, at the same time, without any participation in the peculiarity of

their religious views or social habits, which must rest on their own defence, of both of which I have given the leading arguments; and I have preferred giving these in their own language to offering an abstract of them, as more satisfactory to those who desire to consult the original authorities, and to form their own opinions on the subject.

CHAPTER IX.

Journey from Albany to Schenectady.—Description of the City and College.—Journey from Schenectady to Ballston Centre.—Stay at the Country Seat of Mr. Delavan.—Efforts for the Promotion of Temperance.—General Cocke, the Philanthropist of Virginia.—Mr. Delavan's Mission to England.—Proposed Plan for the Benefit of Emigrants.—First Intercourse with American Farmers.—Inferior Appearance of the Country to England.—Superior Condition of the Farmers and Labourers.—Independence of the Occupiers of Land.—Absence of Tithes, Poor-laws, and other Burdens.—Superior Intelligence of American Farmers.—More comfortable Condition of Farm-labourers.—Fine Field for European Emigrants.—Causes which retard their Progress here.—Statistical Proofs of the Evils of Intemperance.—Contrast produced by Temperate Habits among Farmers.—High State of general Health in the Districts.—Longevity of the Temperate Livers.—Small Proportions of Paupers needing Relief.—First Sabbath spent in a Rural District.—Happy and Prosperous Condition of Domestic.—Regularity of Attendance on Public Worship.—Equality of Privilege among all Classes.—America a Land of Contrasts in Good and Evil.—Practice of "Lobbying" in the State Legislatures.—Corresponding corrupt Practices in England.—Journey through Ballston to Saratoga.

ON Monday, the 16th of July, we left Albany to pay a visit to Mr. E. C. Delavan at his country residence, near Ballston Springs, in Saratoga county, with whom we had promised to spend a week before going to the springs at Saratoga. We left Albany at nine o'clock by the railroad cars for Schenectady, and after a ride of about 16 miles, through a pleasant and fertile country, which occupied nearly an hour, we arrived at this city about 10 o'clock. On entering it we descended over a steep hill, by an inclined plane, which commences about a mile from the town, and the view from this elevation is commanding and agreeable.

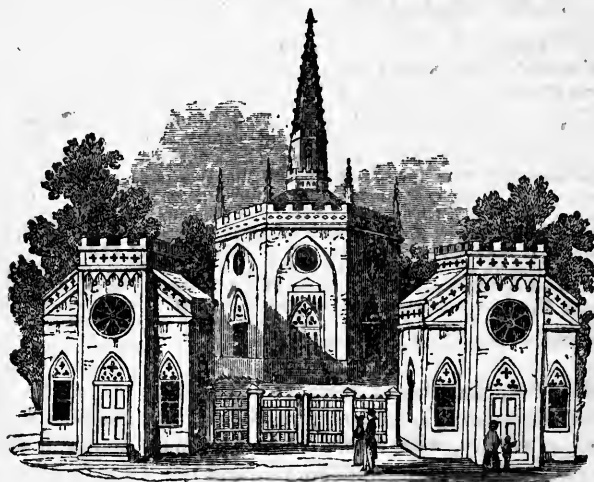
Schenectady, which retains the Indian name of the settlement on which it was first built, is one of the oldest cities in the United States. Some authorities, giving it precedence by a year or two over Albany, make it therefore equal in antiquity with Jamestown in Virginia, which was settled in 1608; others consider it a year or two posterior to Albany, which was settled in 1612: either account, therefore, making it more than two centuries old, which, for America, is a high degree of antiquity.

Schenectady is seated on the banks of the River Mohawk, which winds in great beauty along the level plain whereon the city stands. Its incorporated extent is very considerable, comprehending, as we

were told, a square of 15 miles on each side ; but, like Washington, neither occupied, nor ever likely to be built on, to one third of its chartered dimensions.

The present population of Schenectady, after its two centuries of existence, does not embrace more than 6000 persons, and there is perhaps no city of the same amount of inhabitants in all the state that has been so stationary of late years as this. It was burned down by the Indians in 1690, and suffered considerable injury by a large fire in 1819, since which the buildings have assumed a more modern appearance than those of the old Dutch settlers, of which the town was before chiefly composed.

There is a Lyceum in the city, of a curiously-mixed Gothic ar-



chitecture, but the principal establishment here is Union College, the president of which, the Rev. Dr. Nott, was the companion of our journey from Albany to Schenectady. This establishment is built on an eminence to the eastward of the city, of which and of the Mohawk River it commands a fine view. The expense of its erection and furniture, with all the necessary apparatus of education, has cost upward of 300,000 dollars or 60,000*l.*, the funds for which were partly advanced by the state, and partly raised by lotteries for that purpose, authorized by the state. The number of students in the College exceeds 200 ; and the expense of each student, including all charges, is about 150 dollars or 30*l.* per annum. Its religious and literary character ranks high among the public institutions of the Union, and it is consequently very popular with the community.

As the railroad for Utica and the West branches off from this place, while that for Ballston and Saratoga goes on to the North,

we had to change our cars, and found the facilities for this quite as great as in any similar establishment in England. By this train, which travelled at about the same rate as the former, twenty miles in the hour, we reached our destination about eleven o'clock; and finding Mr. Delavan waiting for us with a carriage, we were taken by him to his farm at Ballston Centre, and were cordially welcomed by his amiable wife and himself as to our own home.

We remained at this agreeable and happy abode for about ten days, in the full enjoyment of the most delightful weather, pleasant rides and walks, books, occasional visitors, and frank-hearted and intelligent entertainers, full of elevated thoughts and benevolent feelings, and never more happy than while projecting plans and indulging hopes for the improvement of the condition of society.

Mr. Delavan had been one of the first to commence the great work of temperance reform in America, and had devoted about seven years of active service to the editorship of the *Temperance Intelligencer and Recorder*, published at Albany. In addition to this, he had expended, from his own private purse, upward of 50,000 dollars or 10,000*l.* sterling in support of the cause; and, on resigning his situation as chairman of the executive committee of the Temperance Society in 1836, he presented the funds with a donation of 10,000 dollars more, to be expended in establishing agencies for promoting temperance within the State of New-York alone. During our stay here he had been called off to Philadelphia, to meet his colleagues or brother members of the American Temperance Union, some of whom came from Virginia, others from Maryland, and others from equally distant points of the country, to confer together on a plan for extending the benefit of their labours to Europe, for placing some temperance documents in the hands of all the emigrants leaving England and elsewhere for the United States, and for bringing some plan to bear on the numerous class engaged in steam-navigation on the Western rivers of America.

General Cocke, of Virginia, an eminent philanthropist and distinguished public man, charged himself with the execution of the latter duty; as his position, as president of the board of internal improvements in Virginia, where they were opening a canal navigation of 200 miles, with railroads to continue the line on to the Mississippi, would afford him great advantages in the exercise of his influence on this great work, and, through it, to reach the steam-navigation of the West; while Mr. Delavan, whose previous residence in England, and whose active habits of business and extensive connexions in Europe, seemed to fit him for that branch of operations, had charged himself with the execution of the former.

Mr. Delavan proposed, therefore, leaving this for England with his family in September next, to carry forward the plan proposed. With this view he had drawn up a circular, addressed to the emigrants leaving Europe, and intended to form depôts at all the sea-

ports from which emigrants embarked, where, under the direction of appointed agents, this circular should be printed in all the requisite languages, English, Irish, German, and French, and a copy placed in the hands of every emigrant at the moment of his embarking, pointing out the safest and the best course for his future conduct to ensure success to his labours in this country. In addition to this, he purposed organizing a committee of influential gentlemen in England, to raise a fund for the purpose of laying before the British public, through the press, the history of the great improvements accomplished in America by means of the Temperance Reformation; and to devote a year in time, and 10,000 dollars in money, to the accomplishment of this great object of pure and disinterested benevolence towards his fellow-beings.

During our stay at Mr. Delavan's we had an opportunity of visiting many of the neighbouring farmers, and receiving visits from others, with their families, as well as of inspecting the condition of their farms, and becoming acquainted with the circumstances of the farm-labourers; for we were now entirely in the country, several miles from any town, and among people wholly devoted to agricultural life.

In the general appearance of the surface of the country, England is far superior to America. The great perfection to which every kind of cultivation has there attained, the noble mansions of the wealthy gentry, the fine parks and lawns, the beautiful hedge-row fences, the substantial stone farmhouses and outbuildings, and the excellent roads and conveyances which are seen in almost every part of England, are not to be found here. But though, in these outward appearances, American farming districts are inferior to English, yet in all substantial realities the superiority is on the side of America.

The occupier of a farm, whether large or small, is almost invariably the owner of the land he cultivates; and, therefore, all the disagreeable differences between landlords and tenants, with the vexations of the game-laws, the authority of country squires and clerical magistrates, so fertile a source of annoyance in England, are here unknown. There being no tithes, great or small, for the support of a State clergy, all that large class of evils growing out of tithe disputes and tithe compositions are here also unheard of. The labourers being fewer than are required, and wages being high, there are neither paupers nor poor-rates, and neither work-houses nor jails are required for the country population, since abundance of work and good pay prevent poverty, and take away all temptation to dishonesty. There being no ranks or orders such as the esquire and the baronet, the baron and the earl, the marquis and the duke, each to compete with and outvie the other in outward splendour, which too often leads to inward embarrassment, as in England, the country residents are free from that foolish ambi-

tion which devours the substance of too many at home; and all those idle disputes and distinctions about old families and new ones, people of high birth and people of low, country families and strangers, which so perplex the good people of England when a county meeting or a county ball takes place, so as to set persons in their right places, to admit some, exclude others, and so on, are here happily unthought of. The consequence is, that, with more sources of pleasure and few sources of dissatisfaction, the American country gentry and farmers are much better off and much happier than the same class of people in England. No corn-laws exist to vex the landowner with a fear of their abolition; no non-payment of rents and abatements to tenants are ever heard of, for landlord and tenant are here merged in one. No distraint for tithes or writs of ejectment ever occur; and, in short, scarcely anything ever happens to ruffle the serenity of a country life in the well-settled parts of America.

The greatest difference of all, however, between the agricultural population of England and those of the United States, is to be seen in their relative degrees of intelligence. In England, no one, I presume, will deny the fact of the farmers and farm-labourers being among the least intelligent and most uneducated portion of the population. Here, on the contrary, they are among the most intelligent and best informed. A great number of the occupiers of farms are persons who, having been successful in business in cities, have retired at an early period of life, bought an estate, take a delight in cultivating it on their own account for income, and as from seven to ten per cent. is realized on farming capital where carefully attended to, it is at once a safe and profitable investment.

These gentlemen, having a good deal of leisure, little parish business to occupy them, and a taste for books and love of information, read a great deal more than the busy inhabitants of commercial cities, and have the power of exercising their judgment and reflection more free from the bias of party views and sectarian feelings than those who live in large communities. Their previous education and ample means dispose others also to works of benevolence; and the consequence is, that while their conversation is more intelligent and their manners greatly superior to that of English farmers generally, they devote a large portion of their time and means to the establishment and support of Sunday schools, district schools, societies for mutual improvement, country libraries, temperance societies, savings' banks, and, in short, everything that can elevate those below them, and make them better and happier in their stations.

There are no taverns, as in the market-towns of England, to absorb half the profits made at market by the drinking and carousing of the buyers and sellers, as is the case with English farmers; and as their mode of visiting and entertaining is social and economical,

families are continually interchanging evening visits with each other, to take a cup of tea, fruit, ice-cream, and sweetmeats or other delicacies, but without spirits, wine, beer, or cider; retiring early, and all coming or going in vehicles adapted to their means, from gigs and phaetons to carriages and family wagons, for there is neither tax nor duty on carriages, horses, or servants, all being free to ride or walk, as suits their pleasure.

If the contrast is striking between the English and American farmer, it is still more so between the farm-labourers of the two countries. In England it is well known what miserable wages agricultural labourers receive—10 to 12 shillings perhaps the average; what scanty fare they are obliged to subsist upon—flesh meat once or twice a week, at the utmost; and how perpetually they stand in danger of the workhouse, with all their desire to avoid it, with no education themselves, and no desire to procure any for their children. Here there is not a labourer on the farm who receives less than a dollar a day or 24 shillings per week, while many receive more; and those who are permanently attached to the farm have wages equal to that throughout the year. Besides this, they have as good living at the farmhouse as prosperous tradesmen in the middle ranks of life enjoy in England; three substantial meals a day, and in hay and harvest time four, with abundance and variety at each. At the same time they enjoy the advantages of excellent schools for the almost gratuitous education of their children, neat little cottages for themselves and wives to live in, a little plot of ground for gardening, and privileges in great number.

The consequence is, that the farm-labourers and their families are well fed, well dressed, well educated in all the ordinary elements of knowledge, intelligent in conversation, agreeable in manners, and as superior to the corresponding class of farm-labourers in England as all these advantages can indicate. There are no beer-shops, at which they spend their substance; no haunts of vice and debauchery, at which they concoct the plans of the poacher, the smuggler, or the robber, to make up by illicit gains the deficiencies of honest industry; and, consequently, no need of prosecutions at the sessions, with all the array of constables, police, magistracy, and treadmills, to punish them and keep them in order. Nobody talks or even appears to think of housebreakers, and dwellings at distances of miles apart from neighbours are often left without the doors being locked or bolted, in summer and in winter, all night long.

If the surplus population of Britain, who cannot obtain adequate remuneration for their labour at home, could but be prevailed upon to transport themselves at once to this country, and seek for employment where it is best found on their arrival, it is impossible to estimate, to their full extent, the benefits that would result to both countries, but, above all, to the parties emigrating. Here millions

of acres, now lying untouched, would be brought into cultivation, and the wealth of the country increased, while the spread of dwellings and population, the increase of towns and cities, the opening of railroads and canals, would send America a century forward in all that is desirable.

In England the effect would be felt, first by a rise in the wages and an improvement of the condition of those who remained at home; next, in the increased demand for British manufactures, which the increased population of America would create; and, lastly, by the strengthening of those ties of kindred and connexion between the people of the two countries, which would make all their friendly relations stronger and stronger, and make future wars between them more and more difficult, if not impossible.

The improvement of the condition of the emigrants themselves would be as great and as certain as that of the two countries, if they pursued a right course; and that, with good advice and proper regulations, could almost be ensured. At present, as soon as they land in the seaport town, they are beset with as many harpies as surround the unhappy sailor when he first touches the shore, especially by the keepers of low taverns and dramshops. By them they are decoyed to their houses, made drunk under a pretext of a welcome and hospitality, their money taken from them if they have any, and, if they have not, a debt for board and drink contracted against them. They then roam about the city in search of employment, where little or none is to be had; they become inspired with a distaste for the country, where alone a sure and certain harvest of reward awaits them; and, like the moth, which lingers around the flame until consumed by what dazzles it, they hang about the skirts of the cities and the grogshops till their poverty tempts them to crime, when they become the inmates of the poor-house or the prison, and there end their days in neglect and misery.

It is ascertained as a fact that more than one third of the emigrants from Europe die within the first three years of their residence in this country, though they generally come out in the full vigour of life; and of the whole number there is not one out of 50 whose death is not actually caused or greatly hastened by intemperance. A very instructive document on this subject came into my possession while at Mr. Delavan's, taken from the Temperance Recorder for November, 1832, the accuracy of which is testified by the signatures of nine of the principal medical officers of the state. It shows that, out of 336 deaths from cholera which took place in Albany in the summer of 1832, omitting all under 16 years of age, 138 were foreigners and mostly emigrants, of which no less than 108 were Irish, 15 English, four Scotch, two Welsh, eight German, and one French; and of these the greatest number were the victims of intemperance, there being no less than 140 who were hard drinkers, 55 who drank freely, 131 who drank moderately but habitu-

ally, while of the strictly temperate there were only five, and of members of temperance societies only two. Of the ages from 20 to 40 there were 189, and above 40 there were 147. The whole population of Albany was at this time about 26,000, and the members of temperance societies about 5000, out of which only *two* individuals died, while 138 emigrants, mostly intemperate, perished.

As a contrast to this melancholy picture, it may be mentioned that, in the farming district in and around this spot, Ballston Centre, where, from the influence exerted by Mr. Delavan and the spread of the temperance publications, the practice of total abstinence from all that can intoxicate is nearly universal, the health and longevity of the population are greater than in any part of the country; the deaths do not reach two per cent. per annum, varying between one and six tenths and one and eight tenths; the ages extend to 80 and 90 ordinarily; and, by the latest examination of the labouring people, it was ascertained that there was only one person in 1152 receiving pecuniary relief as being unable to subsist himself.

On Mr. Delavan's own farm there was scarcely a labourer who had not money placed out at interest; his coachman, cook, and house-servants had several hundred dollars each accumulating in the savings' bank, and additions made to this from the surplus of their wages every year. The gardener and farm-servants were in the same prosperous condition, and had, moreover, small plots of land of which they were the owners. Throughout the whole of this district, the farmers, to a man, refuse to sell their grain for distillation or for malting; while all the produce of their orchards, which is considerable, is devoted to the fattening of cattle instead of the making of cider: and, besides the great moral good thus effected in withholding the supplies of these materials for conversion into intoxicating drinks, they happily find themselves benefited rather than injured, in a pecuniary sense, by their present appropriation.

The Sabbath we passed at Ballston Centre offered a beautiful illustration of the effects of liberal institutions and temperate habits on the condition of domestics, and the relative position of masters and servants. Though there are no parish churches, in the sense in which we understand that term in England, there are sufficient places of worship for all who desire to attend them, including Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Methodist, and Baptist, which are the four most numerous denominations of Christians here. These churches (for all places of worship are so called, and the term chapel is never used) are placed at convenient distances, and generally with reference to centrality among the worshippers frequenting them; but, while they are not more than half a mile from some of the farm-houses, they are six and seven miles from others.

No distance and no weather, however, prevent a general good

attendance, as every family has one or more vehicles, open or covered, and abundance of horses, by which the whole family, servants and all, are easily conveyed to the church. Those who live near return from the morning service to dinner at half past twelve, and go to church again at one; but those who live at a distance generally bring a cold dinner with them; and in the interval between the morning and afternoon service, partake of it on the grass in the neighbouring grounds if the weather be fine, or at the nearest inn or house of accommodation if the weather is bad. Some of the wagons bring 20 and 30 persons of the same farm to church, for none remain at home, and all are on a perfect footing of equality in the enjoyment of their privileges for that day.

From Mr. Delavan's residence, which in England would be called a "country seat" rather than a farmhouse, as it has all the elegances of a gentleman's abode, and its occupier is a man of fortune, the vehicle which conveyed the family to church was called "the Steamboat," from its great length, though drawn on four wheels and by a pair of horses. In it were seats for sixteen persons; and in the same vehicle the family and guests, or visitors, and all the servants, without distinction, drove to church in the forenoon, returned to a cold dinner at half past twelve, repaired again to church in the afternoon, and all the house-servants and farm-labourers, after tea, which was taken at four, set out on foot to walk to the Sunday-school, and attend evening worship again after this. Amid this devotion of their whole attention to religious duties, and complete freedom from labour of all kinds, there was no gloom, no discomfort, and no appearance of weariness, but as much of cheerful enjoyment visible in the countenances and conduct of all, as could result only from the occupation being such as both the will and the heart approved. Without the slightest wish to prevent the freest exercise of individual opinion as to the observance of the Sabbath, I could not but wish that the mingling of the devout, the healthy, and the cheerful, which I witnessed on the first Sunday that I had passed among the rural population of America, could be substituted for the idle, dissipated, and intemperate manner in which it is too often passed by the rural as well as by the civic population of my native land.

America is, however, a country of contrasts, where most things appear to be in extremes; where the good are better, and where the bad are worse, than the same classes are in England. During our stay at Ballston Centre, we heard the details of a case of depravity and corruption such as we could hardly believe possible in connexion with the legislative proceedings of the State, and which I should certainly have thought to be a misrepresentation, if it had not received all the authenticity which the process of a court of justice could afford it.

A practice exists in the State capitals of the country, called "lob-

bying," which consists in this: A certain number of agents, selected for their skill and experience in the arts of deluding, persuading, and bribing the members, are employed by public companies and private individuals who have bills before the Legislature which they are anxious to get passed. These persons attend the lobby of the House daily, talk with members, form parties, invite them to dinners and suppers, and having, besides their daily pay, a good sum of money given them to cover these expenses, they usually succeed in corrupting a sufficient number of the members to effect their purpose, though occasionally, of course, they fail. In one of these instances, the parties employing a Mr. Hillyer, of New-York, as a "lobbyer," to promote the passing of a bill through the Trenton Legislature, in the State of New-Jersey, to incorporate the Bergen Port Company, refused to pay him the sum he demanded for his services, which was 2220 dollars, upon which he brought his action in the court of Common Pleas to recover the same.

On this trial a full development of this practice of "lobbying" was made, by which it appeared that it was carried on to a great extent, and that terrapin and oyster suppers and Champagne were among the most effective means of persuasion used with members to make them look favourably on measures submitted to their investigation and decision. The trial is altogether so curious a chapter in the domestic history of America, that I have given it a place at full length in the Appendix, believing, as I do, that such public and authentic documents as these throw more light on the actual condition of a country—and I am, too, happy to include the documents of a favourable nature also, of which there are many—than any mere descriptions of the state of manners by a stranger; because these are portraits of their own characters, drawn by their own hands, and cannot, therefore, be complained of as the calumnies of a foreigner.*

At the same time that this disclosure places the character of such of the State legislators of America as are thus operated upon in a very unfavourable point of view, it must not be forgotten that in the history of the East India Company, the South Sea Company, and other public corporations in England, the wholesale bribery practised by them to secure the votes of members in the British Parliament, peers as well as commoners, and sometimes even royalty itself, was as flagrantly corrupt as anything that the annals of any country could produce. The whole business of the old Parliament, in the borough-influence times, was conducted mainly by bribery on the part of ministers to their adherents in places, contracts, and benefits of one kind or another. And in the bubble-year of 1825, when speculating companies started up in every corner, and Parliament was applied to for legislative sanction to their undertakings, it is well known that the chairman of the committee

* See Appendix, No. II.

of ways and means in the British House of Commons, and several other members, were detected in acts of the grossest corruption, by receiving shares in companies without payment, on condition of their giving their parliamentary support to bills for their incorporation.

Similar practices, better concealed, no doubt, exist in the British Parliament to the present day, where, in the various railroads, harbours, canals, and other public undertakings requiring parliamentary sanction by bills or acts of incorporation, the prices paid for property to members or friends of members, through whose estates such works are to pass, as well as the sale of shares to members acting on committees and advocating the measures, are so shaped as to be in reality bribes or premiums given for services thus rendered. Add to this that the whole system of our political and municipal election, in the older cities and boroughs, is one of the grossest bribery and corruption throughout, and we shall not be entitled to hold up the American State Legislatures to odium for this practice of "lobbying," without coupling England in the same sentence of condemnation for her bribery and corruption on a much larger scale. To this joint sentence of reprobation for both I most willingly consent, as what is wrong in the one cannot possibly be right in the other.

After passing a most agreeable fortnight at Mr. Delavan's, his family accompanied us in our visit to Saratoga Springs, for which we set out on Saturday, the 28th of July. On our way we passed through Ballston Spa, a pretty village seated in a valley, with picturesque irregularity of hill and dale, and watered by a river with the fine sonorous Indian name of Kyaderosseras. Like Saratoga, Ballston is celebrated for its mineral springs, and was once much frequented by invalids and people of fashion in the season. But it has of late been deserted for Saratoga; for, as not more than a tenth of the visitors to either need any mineral waters, but come chiefly for recreation and amusement, they follow the stream of fashion, and where the greatest number at any time congregate, there the majority of visitors flock after them, till the one place absorbs the whole, and leaves the other deserted.

Ballston is an incorporated village, under a board of trustees, elected annually by the inhabitants, who are about 1200 in number. The courthouse for the county of Saratoga is also here; and there are three churches, several large hotels, and a weekly newspaper published in the village. There are several springs, the principal of which are the original Ballston Spa, the Washington Spring, the Sans Souci Spring, Louis Spring, and the Park Spring. The waters of all these do not differ much from each other, their principal ingredients being muriate of soda, carbonate of soda, carbonate of lime, carbonate of magnesia, and carbonate of iron. The principal hotels will accommodate about 400 persons, and there



are many private boarding-houses for invalids. The environs of Ballston furnish many agreeable rides, and the River Kyaderosseras affords excellent fishing for trout.

From Ballston to Saratoga Springs is a distance of about seven miles, through a generally level country, with the second growth of wood thickly bordering the sandy roads, but with occasional fine views of the hills and mountains in the distance.

CHAPTER X.

Arrival and Stay at Saratoga Springs.—History of the first Settlement of the Spot.—Conveyance of Lands by Indian Chiefs.—Progressive Increase of the Settlement.—Origin of the Popularity of the Springs.—Building of the principal Hotels.—Situation and Appearance of Saratoga.—Characteristics of the principal Houses.—Interesting Spots in the Environs.—Chymical Analysis of the Waters.—Chief Attraction to Visitors at Saratoga.—Great Variety of Character for Observation.—Elegance of the Men and Beauty of the Women.—Deficiency of Females in Expression and Passion.—Difference of Youth and Age in the Men.—American Authority for Degeneracy of Manners.—Freedom of Intercourse with the Young of both Sexes.—Routine of a Day at Saratoga.—Order and Succession of Meals and Intervals.—American Sketch of the American Character.—Evening Amusements.—Hops, Balls, and Concerts.—Specimen of two American “Popular Discourses.”—Imitations of the “Diary of a Physician.”—Discourse on the Nursery Tale of “Cock Robin.”—General Opinions expressed on this Performance.

WE arrived at Saratoga about one o'clock, and, having previously engaged apartments at the Union Hall, we soon found ourselves amid the bustle of a large party of more than 200 persons, promenading the drawing-rooms and piazzas of the hotel, waiting for the approaching hour of dinner, which was two o'clock; and, taking our seats at the table, we were soon recognised by many whom

we had met in different parts of the Union, and found ourselves more at home than we had anticipated.

We remained at Saratoga about ten days, and during that period, the weather being fine, though very warm, we made visits to each of the large hotels besides our own, having friends and acquaintances at each; we saw all the variety of entertainments which here, as at most watering-places, form the chief business of life with those who frequent them, and we made some pleasant excursions in the neighbourhood, so that we were enabled to form a tolerably fair estimate of the place and its visitors; and as it is in many respects singular, and unlike any other rendezvous of fashion in the United States, some account of it may be acceptable.

The first settlement of the whites in the spot where Saratoga now stands, arose out of a grant of lands made here by two Indian chiefs of the Mohawk tribe, to David Schuyler and Robert Livingston, both of Albany, the grant bearing date the 12th of August, 1702, being the first year of the reign of Queen Anne. The Indian name for the spot was then Sah-rah-ka, or the "side of the hill," which correctly enough indicates its position. This was converted by the settlers into Sar-ogh-to-ge, and afterward to Sor-oc-to-ga, from whence the transition was very slight to Saratoga, the name it now bears. The conveyance was legally made "for and in consideration of divers goods," and a few years afterward the whole tract was reconveyed to other purchasers for "the sum of 90*l*. in full satisfaction for all that tract of land situated, lying, and being in the county of Albany, called Kyaderosseras, *alias* Queensborough."

The first settlement was not effected till 1715, and from that period till 1747 little is known of its history; but it was then the subject of a hostile attack on the part of the Indians, when the small town was burned and about thirty families massacred.

In 1755 a fort was commenced called Fort Edward, from whence a road was cut to Lake George, north of it about 30 miles, where Fort William Henry was erected; and in 1759, General Amherst having passed up the Hudson, and by this lake to Canada, put the country into such a state of security as to induce a great increase of settlers, especially along the banks of the Hudson and the Mohawk rivers; while the hunters among the Indian tribes resorted to this spot as a favourite watering-place, the abundance of the springs all along the valley occasioning it to be much frequented by deer and other game.

The following is related as the circumstance which first gave celebrity to the waters of Saratoga. Sir William Johnson, a general of the British army, who had been wounded in the defence of Fort William Henry, had been permitted to retire from the army and to reside at Johnstown, a place westward of Saratoga about 30 miles, as agent for the Indians. Being much indisposed, and

being a great favourite with the Indians, they persuaded him to make a journey to the Springs, to which he assented, and he was borne on a litter carried by the Indians for the greater part of the way. He remained here several days, being supplied with game by the hunters of the friendly tribe, all of them drinking largely of the only mineral spring then open, called High Rock Spring, till they became so fond of the water as to use it to excess for mere enjoyment. In the end, Sir William was so entirely recovered from his illness that he was strong enough to walk all the way home (a distance of 30 miles) on foot; and the fame of this cure spread so rapidly through the country, that from this period the springs grew into greater celebrity every year.

It was in 1792 that the second spring was discovered by Mr. John Taylor Gilman, of New-Hampshire, subsequently a governor of that state, and at that time a member of Congress. It was this which caused it to be called the "Congress Spring;" and of this there is fifty times the quantity drank that there is of any other.

In 1800 the first large hotel was built, under the name of Union Hall. In 1812 this was followed by a still larger house, called the Congress Hall. In 1819 the Pavilion, another large hotel, was erected, and, lastly, in 1824, the United States Hotel, larger and more commodious than any of its predecessors, was opened. In 1827 the village was incorporated by an act of the Legislature, and it then contained about 300 dwelling-houses and two thousand inhabitants, with five places of public worship, since which it has been constantly on the increase.

The situation of the village is pretty, lying generally in a valley, but with sufficient undulation of surface in and near it to make it very picturesque, and the views it presents from the neighbouring hills are varied and agreeable. Like most of the American villages we had yet seen, the main street is of great breadth—140 feet at least, and the length of it is about a mile. The shops and private dwellings are small, while the large hotels look the larger by the contrast.

Of these hotels the Congress Hall is frequented by the most fashionable classes, those who pride themselves on their birth, connexion, and breeding rather than their wealth; and this is consequently the aristocratic or Whig house, in which Conservative doctrines in politics and religion are most current and most acceptable. The United States Hotel is more frequented by the rich mercantile classes, whose wealth makes their importance equal in degree, though differing in its source, to that of the more "ancient families;" and this is the Democratic house. The Union Hall is frequented chiefly by the clergy and religious families, by judges, professors, and grave and elderly people generally; and this is called the religious house. The Pavilion is more miscellaneous in its company, and is occupied more by persons who make a short stay than



by those who remain for any length of time ; and this is called the travellers' house. The largest of these will accommodate 300 persons, and the smallest will accommodate 200 ; besides these, there are smaller hotels and private boarding-houses ; and in the whole of them there was estimated to be at least 3000 strangers, the village having at present more company than on any former occasion that can be remembered.

The environs furnish many agreeable excursions, at distances varying from four miles to forty. The nearest is Saratoga Lake, a beautiful piece of water, about nine miles long and two in average breadth, resembling in its character the softer scenery of the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, especially the Lake of Windermere. The battle-ground of General Burgoyne's defeat and surrender is within a ride of two hours, and forms a point of great interest with all American patriots. The Falls of the Hudson, of which there are three—Baker's Falls, Glen's Falls, and Hadley's Falls—are all within twenty miles of Saratoga. Lake George is about thirty miles, and the richness of the landscape-views which it presents, the transparent clearness of its water, and the excellent sport of fishing with which it abounds, tend to make this the favourite excursion.

The waters of Saratoga, of which there are now half a dozen separate springs open, possess nearly the same properties or qualities, being of the class called "acidulous saline chalybeate," from having carbonic acid gas, salt, and iron in them all, varying only in the proportions of the different substances which each spring contains. The Congress water, being the most acidulous and saline, is drank most copiously, and exported most largely from hence to every part of the Union in bottles. It resembles in its taste the

Seidlitz and Seltzer waters of Germany; and, if drank at the spring itself, has all the briskness of sodawater.

From daylight, therefore, until seven o'clock in the morning, the well or fountain, which is enclosed beneath a roof supported by a colonnade of fluted wooden pillars, is crowded with drinkers, and some are said to take the number of twenty tumblers of the water before breakfast. A circular railway, by which two persons can propel themselves round a circle of about 100 yards' diameter in an easy chair, is judiciously provided within the distance of a short walk from the spring, and the more active among the drinkers repair to it for exercise, to aid the effect of the waters. During the day the more chalybeate qualities of Hamilton and Flat Rock springs are taken; but the general impression here is, that everybody drinks the waters to excess, and that quite as many persons are injured as benefited, from this misuse and misapplication of them.

The Congress water is used in making bread here, serving the purpose of yeast; and the bread made from it is peculiarly light and agreeable. The respiration of all breathing creatures is remarkably affected by their being placed in contact with the gas which issues from the surface of the water at the well. This gas is indeed fatal to animals when immersed in it; and even fishes and frogs, though aquatic in their nature, live but a short period after being placed in the water. The temperature of the spring is so little affected by that of the external atmosphere, that water drawn up from the well when the thermometer stood at 14° below zero in the open air, was found to be 50° of temperature above zero; and when the same experiment was tried with the thermometer at 90° , the water still stood at 50° , as before. The specific gravity of the water at the temperature of 60° , the barometer ranging at 29.5, is 1009.7, the pure water being 1000; and for the space of 20 years, during which repeated experiments have been made, the specific gravity has not varied more than one fifth of a grain.

Dr. Steel, by whom these experiments were tried, and whose analysis of the waters, made during a twenty years' residence at Saratoga, is regarded as the best authority, infers, from repeated examinations, that the spring has its source from a great depth in the earth, because it is so little affected by atmospheric temperature, either of heat or cold, moisture or dryness; and also that it retains all its original medicinal properties, from its undergoing no change in its specific gravity. It is found to contain carbonic acid, soda, iron, lime, magnesia, muriatic acid, potassa, bromine, and iodine.

These are all retained in the water for exportation, by the process of letting down an empty glass bottle through a square tube which forms the aperture to the fountain, and, the moment it is

drawn up, discharging a sufficient quantity of the water to cork it well, which is done instantly on the spot. In this state it is sent to all the large cities of the Union; and few ships leave the American ports without having a supply of Congress water among their cabin stores, it being everywhere acceptable as a refreshing and agreeable beverage, even where its medicinal properties are not valued or required, and never being injurious unless taken to great excess.

After all, however, the chief attraction of Saratoga to visitors is neither the mineral waters nor the salubrious climate, as these are mere excuses for the journey to nine tenths of the comers; but the great charm to the vast majority is the gay and ever-changing company that is found here from all parts of the Union, and especially of the opulent classes, into which it is the constant aim and desire of those who are not opulent to get admitted. Hundreds who, in their own towns, could not find admittance into the circles of fashionable society there—for the rich and leading families of America are quite as exclusive in their coteries as the aristocracy of England—come to Saratoga, where, at Congress Hall or the United States, by the moderate payment of two dollars a day, they may be seated at the same table, and often side by side with the first families of the country; promenade in the same piazza, lounge on the sofas in the same drawing-room, and dance in the same quadrille with the most fashionable beaux and belles of the land; and thus, for the week or month they may stay at Saratoga, they enjoy all the advantages which their position would make inaccessible to them at home.

On the whole, perhaps, Saratoga affords the best opportunity that a stranger can enjoy for seeing American society on the largest scale, and embracing the greatest variety of classes at the same time; for, except the small shopkeeper and mere labourer, every other class has its representative here. The rich merchant from New-Orleans, and the wealthy planter from Arkansas, Alabama, and Tennessee, with the more haughty and more polished landowner from Georgia, the Carolinas, and Virginia; the successful speculator in real estate from Kentucky, Ohio, Missouri, and Michigan; the rich capitalist from Boston and New-York; the grave Quaker from Providence and Philadelphia; the official functionary from Washington, and the learned professor from New-Haven, Cambridge, and Hartford, all mingle together in strange variety, and present such strikingly different yet truly characteristic features, that the whole Union is thus brought before the eye of the stranger at one view, and he has ample field for observation of their several representatives.

Speaking in general terms, my own impression was, that in the company at Congress Hall especially there were quite as many elegant men, and a great many more beautiful women, than are usually seen among a similar number of persons assembled in any pub-

lic room at Brighton, Cheltenham, or Bath. Those from the South bore away the palm of superiority in beauty and manners, there being an ease, a grace, and an elegance or polish about the Southerners, whether ladies or gentlemen, which those of the North, as far as my observation has yet extended, do not attain. The women are incomparably more beautiful; and we saw here some from Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, especially from Charleston, Norfolk, and Baltimore, that would grace any court in Europe; while from Philadelphia and New-York there were also some lovely countenances, especially among the young.

My opinion, indeed, was here strongly confirmed, that there is no country in Europe in which there are so many beautiful faces among the women as in this; the symmetry of their features, the contrast between the marbly whiteness of their complexion, and their dark eyes and hair, small mouths, and beautifully white and regular teeth, are the chief traits of their beauty. But, on the other hand, they want the full development of figure and bust, as well as the rosy complexion and coral lips, of the healthy English beauty; and are still more deficient in that gayety and animation which a brilliant female countenance so often expresses in the look of intelligence, and glow of feeling and sentiment, which accompany the utterance of a well-educated and well-bred woman at home.

The American ladies did not appear to me to evince the same passionate admiration which is constantly witnessed among English females for the pursuit or object in which they were engaged. Neither painting, sculpture, poetry, nor music; neither the higher topics of intellectual conversation, nor the lighter beauties of the belles lettres, seem to move them from the general apathy and indifference, or coldness of temperament, which is their most remarkable defect. In England, Ireland, and Scotland, in Germany, France, and Italy, and even in Spain and Portugal, well-educated women evince an enthusiasm, and express, because they feel, a passionate delight in speaking of works of art which they have seen, of literary productions which they have read, or of poetry or music which they may have heard; and the sympathy which they thus kindle in the minds of others only seems to increase the fervour and intensity of their own. Among the American ladies of the best education, I have never yet witnessed anything approaching to this; and as it is not deficiency of information—for most of them possess a wider circle of knowledge, in whatever is taught at school, than ladies do with us—it must be a deficiency of taste and feeling.

Whether this is the result of climate or physical temperament, as some suppose, or the mere influence of cold manners, as others imagine, I cannot determine; though I am inclined to adopt the former supposition, because the same phlegmatic temperament is evinced in the progress of that which, if women have any passion at all, however deep-seated it may be, will assuredly bring it out:

I mean the progress of their attachments or loves ; for I have neither heard nor seen any evidence of that all-absorbing and romantic feeling, by which this passion is accompanied in its development, in all the countries I have named ; and, although probably the American women make the most faithful wives and most correct members of society that any nation or community can furnish, I do not think they love with the same intensity as the women of Europe, or would be ready to make such sacrifices of personal consideration, in rank, fortune, or conveniences of life, for the sake of obtaining the object of their affections, as women readily and perpetually do with us.

Whether this is an advantage or a disadvantage, I will not undertake to say, but of the fact I have no doubt ; and to the same cause, the coldness of temperament, I attribute the absence of all enthusiasm among them in regard to literature and the arts, which they cultivate as a matter of duty, and not from ardent admiration or love of the pursuit ; and in which, for this very reason, they rarely or never arise above mediocrity in their knowledge or practice of them.

Of the men in the fashionable circles of society here, the difference between the old and the young is very striking. The old men from the South, and from Carolina and Virginia especially, are what would be called perfect gentlemen of the old school with us : precise, yet elegant in their dress ; courteous and affable in their manners ; high-toned in their politics and taste ; lax in their morality while fashion sanctions their conduct ; warm in their attachments ; fierce in their resentments ; and punctilious in all points of honour and etiquette. The remains of the feudal system in Virginia, where the laws of entail existed, and where large estates descended hereditarily from father to elder son, sustained this state of manners and feeling ; and Virginia is still called "The Old Dominion," as if to preserve the recollection of its ancient condition as a colony of the British crown.

The younger men among the fashionables are almost all copyists of the dress, style, and manners of the "young men about town," as they are called in London, and are chiefly remarkable for foppery of dress, and the assumption of beards, mustaches, and other exotic fashions, as if they were either foreigners themselves, or had travelled so long on the Continent of Europe as to bear about them the marks of their sojourn at Rome, Naples, and Paris. Their manners, too, like those of our "young men about town," are rather familiar than elegant, and more remarkable for *brusquerie* and *non-chalance* than for courtesy or refinement.

The inferiority of the young to the old among the men in high life is as great in their conversation as in their manners, and greater even than the difference of their ages would justify. Even Mr. Cooper, a writer of their own nation, has remarked upon this de-

generacy or decline, and all I have seen fully justifies his remarks. He says,

“There is no doubt that, in general, America has retrograded in manners within the last thirty years. Boys, and even men, wear their hats in the houses of all classes, and before persons of all ages and conditions. This is not independence, but vulgarity; for nothing sooner distinguishes a gentleman from a blackguard than the habitual attention of the former to the minor civilities established by custom. It has been truly said, that the man who is well dressed respects himself more and behaves himself better than the man that is ill dressed; but it is still more true, that the man who commences with a strict observance of the commoner civilities, will be the most apt to admit of the influence of refinement on his whole character.

“The defects in American deportment are, notwithstanding, numerous and palpable. Among the first may be ranked insubordination in children, and a general want of respect for age. The former vice may be ascribed to the business habits of the country, which leave so little time for parental instruction, and perhaps, in some degree, to the arts of political agents, who, with their own advantage in view, among the other expedients of their cunning, have resorted to the artifice of separating children from their natural advisers, by calling meetings of the young to decide on the fortunes and policy of the country. Every advertisement calling assemblies of the young to deliberate on national concerns ought to be deemed an insult to the good sense, the modesty, and the filial piety of the class to which it is addressed.”

The young, indeed, of both sexes carry on matters just as they please, the young women reigning supreme in parties of pleasure, as the young men do in deciding on political affairs; so that the old seem either to be left on the shelf altogether, or only brought upon the stage to look on, bestow their approbation, and pay the expense. Here at Saratoga, in all the parties we visited, whether balls, concerts, or promenades, the married ladies were seemingly only valued as persons necessary to give countenance to the assembling of the young; while these usurped all authority and influence, and monopolized the exclusive attention of the men.

It has been thought by many that the excessive confidence reposed in the young, and the liberty they are permitted to enjoy in being so frequently alone together, are more favourable to the virtue of both than if they were under more restraint. This may be true to a certain extent; but I should myself be disposed to attribute the absence of danger much more to the coldness of temperament, of which I have before spoken, than to any other cause; but, after making every allowance for the operation of both, I cannot but think that the gay season at Saratoga is a very unfavourable preparation for the discharge of those social and domestic duties which all are sooner or later called upon to discharge.

Take the general routine of a day at the Springs as an example. All rise between 6 and 7 o'clock, and at half past 7 the drawing-room of each of the larger hotels is filled with from 200 to 300 persons, promenading till the folding doors are thrown open for admis-

sion to the dining-hall, when this large number seat themselves at breakfast. The meal is generally a substantial one, a variety of dishes being placed on the table, and few persons breakfasting without partaking of some description of animal food; but the rapidity with which it is despatched is its most remarkable feature, the longest time taken by the slowest being never more than 15 minutes, some of the quickest getting through the meal in 5 minutes, and the average number occupying about 10.

In the busy cities, the reason assigned for this haste is the keen pursuit of business, and the eager desire to get to the counting-house or store; but here, with the entire day before them, and nothing whatever to do, they eat with just the same haste as at other places. The contest for the dishes is a perfect scramble; the noise and clatter of the waiters and their wares are absolutely deafening; no one gets precisely what he wants, though every one is searching after something. The quiet elegance of an English breakfast is as great a contrast to the noisy rudeness of an American meal as can well be conceived, even when both are taken in public hotels like these. Elegance of manners in such a scene as this is quite out of the question. People eat as if they were afraid that their plates were about to be snatched from them before they had done; mastication may be said to be almost entirely omitted; and in nine cases out of ten, persons do not remain in their chairs to finish the meal, short as it is, but rise with the last mouthful still unswallowed, and dispose of it gradually as they walk along.

The period between breakfast at 8 o'clock and dinner at 2 is occupied by the more active in excursions to the surrounding points of attraction, on horseback or in carriages; but the greater number remain at home; and the drawing-room is then the general lounge, where groups of the young are formed, who sit for hours engaged in the merest gossip of trifling talk, for it hardly deserves the name of conversation; and neither books, music, nor drawing occupy any portion of the time.

Dressing for dinner fills up a vacant hour; at one and at half past one the drawing-room is again crowded with the promenading parties waiting for the opening of the folding doors to admit them to dinner. The hurry and bustle of the breakfast scene are again repeated, with little of table enjoyment to reconcile the parties to the heat and noise of the room. The fare is what in England would be called coarse and bad, the dishes few in number, and wretchedly cooked, besides being all lukewarm; and the miserable sprinkling of bad vegetables being almost as cold as if they had been dressed on the preceding day; no covers for the dishes or warm plates for the guests; no appointed carvers; an insufficiency of attendants; and, altogether, an ill-managed and an ill-enjoyed dinner. The escape from this is almost as rapid as from the breakfast, and 15 minutes may be regarded as the average time occupied

in it; though a few may sit, perhaps, from 20 to 25 minutes, but none for half an hour.

The afternoon is literally whiled away between the drawing-room and the sleeping-room, or in the spacious and shady piazzas or verandas, in one of which, fronting the garden at the back of the house, the gentlemen retire to smoke their cigars, and in the other, in front of the house, ladies and gentlemen, not otherwise occupied, mingle in the promenade. In all the great houses everything is sacrificed to appearance. The piazzas are of splendid dimensions, 200 feet by 20, and 50 feet high, supported by lofty pillars, entwined with spiral wreaths of foliage; the dining-halls capable of seating 400 persons; the drawing-rooms, especially that of the United States, of magnificent dimensions and handsomely furnished; but the bedrooms are generally exceedingly small, those of Congress Hall especially, scantily provided, and altogether inferior to what the scale and style of the house, in other respects, would warrant the visitor to expect.

The third meal, of tea, is taken at seven o'clock, and is, in short, a supper, as meats of various kinds are placed on the table, which is covered with a tablecloth as at dinner, and at which the 200 or 300 visitors seat themselves in the same way. This is got through with the same rapidity as the two preceding ones, no fatigue during the day, or any other consideration, inducing persons to relax in the least from the hurry with which everything is done in this country; a feature that is thus expressed by an American writer in one of their public journals:

"THE AMERICAN CHARACTER.—We are born in a hurry," says an American writer; "we are educated at speed. We make a fortune with the wave of a wand, and lose it in like manner, to remake and relapse it in the twinkling of an eye. Our body is a locomotive, travelling at the rate of ten leagues an hour; our spirit is a high-pressure engine; our life resembles a shooting star; and death surprises us like an electric shock."

The evenings are more varied than the day, as there is sometimes a ball, and sometimes a "hop," as it is termed here, the difference being, that at the former a full-dress is expected, at the latter the ordinary dinner-dress will suffice; occasionally there is a concert, sometimes a display of ventriloquism, now and then a farce by a company of strolling players, and this again varied by a conjuror with tricks of legerdemain. It is in this vein of the trifling and the ridiculous that the taste is said to run at all times here, and certainly during our short stay it was made pretty manifest by the crowded audience of the most fashionable of the visitors at the United States and the Congress Hall, to hear a Dr. Irving, from South Carolina, deliver what were called two "popular discourses."

The first of them was one of the most empty rhodomontades that

it was ever my fate to listen to, being an attempted imitation of "Passages from the Diary of a Physician," originally published in Blackwood's Magazine, narrating real occurrences in the families of patients in South Carolina, and giving expression to the most licentious principles and feelings, in affected descriptions of love-scenes between the young assistant surgeon, who had to attend the parents in his medical capacity, and the daughter of his patients, so offensive that, though it was patiently listened to by some, many rose and left the room before it was ended, and nearly all whom I heard express an opinion on the subject condemned it in no measured terms. This he called his "Penseroso," and at the close of it he announced that this appeared to give such general satisfaction, he should try his hand at an "Allegro," the subject of which would shortly be made public.

Accordingly, on the next morning a handbill appeared, of which the following is a copy :

"A CARD.—Dr. Irving, encouraged by the flattering attention bestowed upon his first lecture, respectfully announces his intention to deliver, on Thursday evening, August 2, in the saloon of Congress Hall, commencing at half past eight, a satirical review of the nursery ballad of 'Little Cock Robin;' considered as a great modern Epic, after the most approved mode of reviewing works in general, and poems in particular.

'All the birds fell
To sighing and sobbing,
When they heard tell
Of the death of Cock Robin.'

"Admittance 50 cents. Tickets may be procured at the principal hotels and at the reading-rooms."

I attended this to see what would be the character of the audience, what the reception of the speaker, and what the impression made by his discourse, hardly expecting there would be many present, as I thought the native Americans would rather be disposed to resent such an affront to their taste and understanding than to patronise it by a very large attendance. In this, however, I was mistaken, for there were certainly not less than 500 persons present, and those of the first style of fashion, from the two principal hotels, including old and young, and about an equal number of both sexes, including grave and venerable gentlemen of 70, and matronly ladies of 60, with all the beaux and belles between 15 and 20.

The speaker was received in silence, as it is not usual for an audience to applaud, except at the theatres and political meetings. As he proceeded to develop his subject, which was a tissue of the most absurd and puerile conceits, and abortive attempts at wit and humour, that I ever remember to have witnessed, there was a great variety in the expressions of the auditors' countenances. Some endeavoured to force a smile, as if to show that they had sagacity enough to perceive the wit intended; some looked more ashamed

for themselves at being present than for the speaker as an orator of their own country; but the great majority were evidently uncomfortable at their present position, sorry that they had got into it, but wanting courage enough to rise and go out, though some did this before the discourse was half over.

As the former narrative, of the loves of a young physician and his patient's daughter, was thickly interspersed with pictures bordering on the lascivious, at which I do not think a female audience would have sat still for many minutes in England, so this second discourse was interlarded with the most fulsome appeals to the beauty and tenderness of the young ladies, as the "loves of society," and the gallantry and devotedness of the young men, as the "cock-robins and sparrows of the community," in a strain that was at once insulting to the understanding, as it was offensive to all minds of delicacy or good taste. Nevertheless, by a large number of the audience, the speaker was applauded to the echo, at which the old looked abashed, and the middle-aged embarrassed: yet for a long hour and a half was this most insufferable tediousness bestowed upon the audience, and their indulgent forbearance coolly taken by the speaker as a proof of their very flattering approbation of his critical and oratorical labours.

On retiring to the drawing-room I had an opportunity of hearing directly, and overhearing indirectly, in the crowded promenade, in which all joined, a number of opinions delivered on this literary performance. Some expressed their unqualified disgust, and thought this feeling ought to have been evinced in some public manner; but these were very few; the greater number admitted that it was the most arrant nonsense they had ever heard, but thought that it was not patriotic to run it down, since, after all, it was the performance of a native American; and some, who had noticed my being present, and who supposed it probable that I should give to the world some account of my travels in America, expressed a hope that I should not mention anything so discreditable to the taste of an American audience in my Journal.

CHAPTER XI.

Sensitiveness of Americans to foreign Censure.—Opinion of Mr. Latrobe on American Character.—Evil Effects produced by Hotel and Boarding-house Life.—Too early Introduction of the Young to public Society.—Effects on the Taste and Manners of the more advanced.—Disadvantages to married and elderly Persons.—No Return for this in improved Health or Vigour.—Equal Applicability of this to English Watering-places.—Suggestion of a better Mode of making Summer Excursions.—Beneficial Effects which would flow from its adoption.—Deaths of two Inmates of the House at Saratoga.—Impressive Solemnity of a Quaker Funeral.—Address of an Elder or Patriarch of the Society.—Affecting Prayer of the Mother of the Deceased.—Effect produced on the whole Assembly.—Contrast with more gorgeous Funerals.—Quakers universally friendly to Abolition.—Many of the American Clergy Apologists for Slavery.—Prejudices on Republicanism and on Monarchy.—Opinion of Mr. Cooper, the American, on Slavery.—Fallacies of the Arguments used on this Subject.—Public Meeting at Saratoga on Education.—Public Meeting at Ballston on Temperance.—Comparison between English and American Farmers.—Difference in the Appearance of the Females.

ONE of the most striking features of the American character is the extreme sensitiveness of all classes to the opinions of foreigners; and it is only to the fact of their being the opinions of foreigners that they object; for the same censures, coming from one of their own nation, are scarcely heeded. The North, for instance, will abuse the South in unmeasured terms, both in their public journals and at public meetings, as a set of unprincipled, licentious, reckless slaveholders, sharpers, and gamblers combined. The South will return the compliment, by calling the men of the North a set of cold, selfish, calculating, canting hypocrites, desiring to pursue their schemes of pretended philanthropy at the expense of their fellow-citizens, committing acts of fraud and overreaching during the week, and wiping it off with sanctimonious faces and long prayers on Sundays. The Democratic party will accuse its political opponents of being tyrants, oppressors, and bloodsuckers, preying on the vitals of the nation, holding the power of the banks, to make themselves a moneyed aristocracy, and traitors to the liberties of the people. The aristocratic party, here called the Whigs, will denounce the Democrats as agrarians, levellers, incendiaries, and plunderers, who desire to seize the property of the rich and divide it among themselves, and whose designs are fraught with the utmost danger to property, morality, and religion.

It may be doubted whether either of these parties themselves believe what they say of their opponents. It is hardly possible that they should not know that it is not true. But it serves, or is supposed to serve, the interests of the respective parties so to denounce and vilify each other, that if a collection could be made of all that the American speakers and writers say of all parts and sections of their own country in turn, it might be pronounced, upon their own

respective authorities, to be worse than Sodom and Gomorrah in the very height of their wickedness. While this warfare against each other still goes on, however, let but an English traveller venture to express an opinion of the inferiority of the American people to his own countrymen, in any the most trifling particular, whether in beauty or healthiness of appearance, dress, manners, accomplishments, taste, or any other quality, and every one will be up in arms against him. This is not because the observations are unjust (for they could not be so deemed by those who say much worse things of each other), but because they are uttered by a foreigner, who is guilty, according to their notions, of an unfit return for the hospitalities he may have received, in speaking even the truth of them, if it does not place them in the most favourable point of view possible.

Among the more sensible and more liberal of the Americans, there are many who think that it is highly advantageous to the nation at large to have its defects pointed out by those who can discern them; for many things are perceptible to the foreign eye, which, from habitual familiarity, escape the native vision; and hence the wise wish of Burns,

“ Oh ! that the gods the gift would gi’ us
To see ourselves as others see us.”

I have already quoted the observations of Mr. Nicholas Biddle, of Philadelphia, in his address to the Alumni of Princeton College on this subject; and I subjoin some very just remarks to the same purpose from a judicious and impartial observer, Mr. Latrobe, who says,

“ Well may the foreigner be surprised at the utter perversity and sensitiveness of mind of by far the greater majority of Americans, of whatever class, in taking to heart and bitterly resenting any chance remarks upon the men and manners of a given district, when perhaps not exactly of a laudatory description, thus making the quarrel of one division of the community the quarrel of all. In this respect there is doubtless a characteristic nationality of feeling. To see a gentleman of Boston or Baltimore resenting, by word or deed, the sketch published to the world of the society of a district of the West, borders on the ludicrous; the more so as, if untravelled, they are frequently as ignorant of the state of things there as a stay-at-home Englishman might be supposed to be. It impresses one with the idea that the inhabitants of the United States—little mercy as they show each other in their stormy political contests, little measure as they hold in their terms of satire and obloquy, defamation, and abuse of parties and individuals in their public prints—are sensitive, as a people, beyond example, to criticism from without, and more particularly so when the observation comes from an inhabitant of Britain. This weakness amounts to a national disease.”

If these pages shall be read by any friends of mine in America, from whom I have received the kind and friendly attentions for which I freely acknowledge myself their debtor, I shall be blamed

perhaps by them for saying, what I nevertheless think to be true, that the habit of living at public hotels or boarding-houses, and being crowded together in large and ill-assorted assemblages, is highly detrimental to the formation of character in the young, and far more calculated to vulgarize and corrupt the taste than to refine it.

This mode of life introduces the young of both sexes much too early into public life, and under circumstances of the greatest disadvantage. Young children of six and seven years of age are here seen at concerts, balls, and "hops" at hours when they should be in bed; and passing the day in the most frivolous amusements, playing at checkers or backgammon, coquetting and flirting in the gardens, eating and drinking of everything at table, however great the variety, without a single restraint on the full indulgence of their wills, and with no useful or instructive occupation or pursuit for weeks in succession.

On those of riper age, the young men and girls of fifteen to eighteen, the effect of such a desultory life must be equally injurious. Accustomed thus early to a round of flatteries and pleasures, they imbibe a distaste for steady and persevering application to anything, and acquire a fondness for excitement, and a taste for frivolity and gayety, which makes home dull and gloomy after the dissipation of the hotel; while during the remainder of the year they long for the return of the period when they may be released from the monotonous round of mere social enjoyments, to plunge again into the more exciting pleasures of Ballston, Saratoga, or the Virginia Springs.

Even on the married and more elderly people who make these annual visits, and often prolong them by alternations of journeying and halting, the effect is far from beneficial. It relaxes the wholesome authority of parents over children, and makes the bond of filial respect and obedience grow continually weaker and weaker, because, on such excursions, a hundred things must be permitted or overlooked, and suffered to be passed over with impunity, which would not be sanctioned at home. The means of discipline are absent, and the end is, therefore, for a while lost sight of or suspended. Indulgences of all kinds, in food, dress, and entertainment, are granted, because they cannot, without much greater trouble, be withheld. Consecutive reading of any description is thought to be impracticable, and nothing but scraps or fragments of the lightest and most worthless kind are ever suffered to occupy their minds; industrious application to anything is thought to be out of place; habits of listlessness and idleness are contracted; and the mental bow becomes so frequently and long relaxed, that it is very difficult to string it again in anything like its original tension.

If, in return for these evils, or as a counterbalance to them, any great good was derived, it would be less to be deplored; but I

could not discover that there was any. It is almost admitted by common consent, that quite as large a number of the visitors are injured by taking the waters to excess, as are benefited by taking them in a moderate degree; while the largest portion of visitors are those who either do not drink the waters at all, of which there are many, or on whom they produce neither good nor evil effects. No exercise is taken by the greatest number of a nature to benefit the physical frame, as three fourths of the whole body of visitors literally lounge away their time in the drawing-room and piazzas, the elderly gentlemen smoking cigars and reading the newspapers, and the elderly ladies sitting on sofas and fanning themselves; while the younger of both sexes alternately gather round in gossiping groups for the idlest chit-chat, and promenade to exhibit their graces, or to indulge in remarks on the appearance and manners of those around them.

It accordingly happens that very many leave the Springs in worse health than they come here; and I was assured by a physician in extensive practice in Philadelphia, that the medical men of the large-cities were never in greater requisition than on the return home of the various families who had been out indulging in all the irregularities and excesses of the watering-places. If health is not benefited in the greater number, while good habits are broken in upon, and bad ones contracted; if mental improvement is suspended, love of study weakened, family discipline relaxed, and self-control abated; if the social enjoyments of a quiet home are made to seem dull and spiritless, and stimulating pleasures made more attractive; and if, as is undoubted, these effects grow more and more visible in every succeeding year, the balance of evil would seem greatly to preponderate over good, in the indulgence of this gregarious habit of living a sort of elegant barrack-life for two or three months in every year, and wandering without an object over the same dull routine of travel, through beaten and oft-trodden paths, for two or three more.

I should add, in justice, that I conceive these objections to be as applicable to the annual visits made by my own countrymen and women to Margate, Ramsgate, Brighton, Cheltenham, and Leamington in England, as to those made to Ballston, Saratoga, and Virginia in America. If I am asked what should be the substitute, supposing that there will always be a large class among the opulent to whom a summer excursion will be almost deemed a necessary part of their existence, I should say that such an arrangement as the following would be far better. Let those for whom the use of sea-bathing, or the drinking of mineral waters, are prescribed as necessary by their medical advisers, repair to such spots as furnish them; but all other classes might benefit far more if they would devote the few weeks or few months that they intended to be absent from home in every year to actual travelling, making

their journey long or short, as their time would admit, but varying their excursion every year, so as to be constantly increasing their actual acquaintance, first with thier own country in all its parts and sections, and then with those most easily accessible beyond it. In this country, for instance, what could be more advantageous to the children of a family, or more pleasurable to the heads of it, than to devote the summer excursion of every year to the examination of all that is interesting in one or more of the several Northern States till all were exhausted, and then to vary this with an occasional winter excursion to the States of the South, and an occasional spring or autumn excursion to the States of the West.

In England the examination of a group of counties might be undertaken every year: Cornwall, Devon, and Somerset for one; Dorset, Hampshire, and Wiltshire for another; and so on; and, when England was exhausted, Scotland and Ireland might follow; France might come in after for one summer; Italy and Switzerland might succeed; Germany and the North; Spain and Portugal; the shores of the Mediterranean, Greece, Egypt, and the more accessible countries of Asia, might all in turn be visited by the more wealthy classes, those to whom time and expense are no object; but there are none who can afford to go from home at all, who could not make their excursions, however short or however long they might be, far more favourable to bodily health, by the exercise of constant travelling, and far more favourable to mental improvement and mental enjoyment, by the constantly succeeding variety of objects presented for investigation.

Such journeys as these should be undertaken with the requisite books and maps for information; and, if possible, with some tutor or governess capable of directing the studies of the young, and forming an agreeable companion to the old, by the way. The knowledge of the geography, geology, mineralogy, botany, and natural history of the sections visited would be of the highest interest for some. The history, antiquities, and monuments would most interest others. The statistics of population, manufactures, and commerce would engage the attention of one class; and the state of the arts, or the condition of society and manners, would have greater charms for another. Drawings might be made of interesting scenery or objects; specimens of minerals, insects, plants might be collected, and gradually formed into a family museum. Diaries might be kept, recording the most remarkable incidents and observations. Riding, swimming, and athletic diversions, archery, and other manly sports, might be practised wherever opportunities occurred on the way. From such excursions as these, all parties, old and young, might return invigorated in health, improved in knowledge, softened in prejudices, refined in manners, and with such new stores of information, and new sources of sympathy, by the increased acquaintance with places, men, and things, as would make them

far more happy when alone, and far more agreeable when in company.

During our stay at Saratoga we had our house of feasting turned to a house of mourning by the death of two of its inmates within a few days of each other. The one was an elderly gentleman, whose death, it was believed, if not actually caused, was greatly accelerated by imprudent diet and an excessive use of the waters; his body was removed immediately after death to New-York for interment. The other was a young Quaker from Providence, here with his parents, and brothers, and sisters, intended to be married, and his proposed bride daily expected to meet him. He came here with a slight affection of inflammatory rheumatism, and was considered to have quite recovered from this affection, when suddenly in the night he was seized with spasms of the heart and faintness, and, before his father could come to his assistance, though sleeping in the next room, he expired. This event, as might be expected, threw a sadness and gloom over the inmates of the house in which it occurred; and when the funeral of the deceased took place on the day following his death, it was attended by all who were within the dwelling. It was the first Quaker funeral at which I had ever been present; and it affected all very deeply, from the simple and unostentatious solemnity by which it was characterized.

The coffin, of plain mahogany, without the appearance of breast-plate, handles, or escutcheon, was brought from the bedroom by the young men who were his friends and companions in life—and by whom, also, it was alternately carried to the grave—and placed on a large table, prepared with a clean white linen cloth spread, on which to receive it. It was followed by the parents, relatives, and personal friends, who walked after it in pairs, but in their ordinary dresses, as neither black clothes nor any other outward emblems are ever worn by Quakers. They then took their seats on the sofas and chairs around the drawing-rooms; and, soon after this, the remaining space was occupied by nearly 200 persons living in the house, and some few from the neighbourhood, belonging to the Society of Friends, of which the deceased was a member.

A dead silence prevailed, which continued for more than half an hour; and so unbroken and profound was the stillness, that the fall of a pin might be heard if dropped upon the floor. There was something indescribably impressive in this spectacle, of a gayly-dressed assemblage of persons congregated for pleasure at this focus of gayety and thoughtlessness, sitting in an ordinary drawing-room, with the dead body of one of their own companions, alive and well but two days before, lying in the cold shroud of death in the very midst of them. I do not think that any spoken discourse, however eloquent, could have more powerfully arrested the feelings, or awakened the attention to the certainty and frequent suddenness of death, and the hourly necessity for preparation for it, than was ef-

fectured by the silent scene before us ; and, accordingly, many eyes, besides those of the friends and relatives of the deceased, were filled with tears.

At length a venerable old Quaker, upward of 80 years of age, who had come in from the country to attend the funeral, arose and addressed the assembly. It was unusual, he said, but not unpleasant, to see so many strangers congregated together, to witness the departure from among them of one of the members of their society ; and he felt impelled, by an irresistible impulse, to profit by the occasion, and address a few words to those by whom he was surrounded. His observations were full of piety, beauty, and appropriateness ; and there could hardly have been one present who did not respond to the aspiration with which he concluded, that all might be able to say, in the language of the apostle, " It was good for me to have been here." Another pause of profound silence ensued, which was quite as impressive as before ; and another short address from the same venerable patriarch, the last, he thought it probable, he might ever be permitted to utter in the presence of others, made almost every one present weep copiously.

To the pause which succeeded the close of this followed a most touching scene, when the stepmother of the deceased, who had sat beside her deeply-afflicted husband, and surrounded by her numerous sorrowing children, fell gently on her knees from the place where she sat ; and, while nearly all the strangers present instinctively followed her in assuming the same supplicating attitude, she poured forth a prayer, so full of eloquence, devotion, sweetness, tenderness, and simple beauty, as to penetrate every heart. The evident struggles between her own feelings and her sense of duty, which caused her voice every now and then to falter, and her utterance to become choked, and which shook her mourning husband with deep and convulsive sobs, was so powerful and so truthful an exhibition of the genuine pathos of unaffected nature under a bereavement with which all could sympathize deeply, that never, perhaps, was there an assembly of the same number of persons so completely absorbed in devotion, awe, and grief combined, as the kneeling mourners (for all had so become by sympathy) which surrounded the corpse of this young and suddenly-snatched flower, fading before their eyes, while the sweetest accents of maternal love, piety, and resignation filled their ears, and penetrated to the utmost recesses of their hearts.

I have seen many funerals in many different lands, and conducted in very different modes ; from the " pomps and vanities" which swell the death-pageantry of heroes and of kings, to the simple interment of the friendless mariner, who is consigned to a watery grave, without prayer or chaplain, by the hands of his brother shipmates ; but I never remember to have witnessed anything half so heart-searching and mind-impressing as this ; and I cannot but be-

lieve that if so simple, yet purely devotional a mode of interring the dead were universally adopted by Christian nations, instead of the "plumed hearse," the hired mourners, the long unmeaning cavalcade, with scarfs, and bands, and sable cloaks, where all within is coldness and indifference, the change would be highly beneficial if the object of accompanying the interment of the dead with any ceremonial at all be to impress the living with the necessity of preparing to follow them.

The Quakers whom we met at Saratoga were, like the rest of their society throughout America, all friendly to the abolition of slavery; and so, indeed, were many of the more religious individuals whom we met with from the Northern or New-England States. I was surprised, however, to find that, besides the Southern planters, who might be expected to speak ill of the abolitionists, and the rich merchants of New-York and Philadelphia, who fancy they have a pecuniary interest in speaking well of the South, and excusing, if not justifying slavery, because their connexions in that quarter are too profitable to be endangered by appearing to side with the abolitionists, there were many clergymen here from different parts of the Union who were as free in expressing their disapprobation of the course of the abolitionists as any Southern person could be.

Happily, there were others who entertained very different views on the subject; but that there should be *any* ministers of the Gospel to take a part against the abolitionists, must seem, to an Englishman at least, extremely strange. Yet so it is; and the solution of the mystery is this: that, being born, bred, and educated in America from their infancy, and cast into the society of those who are, or suppose themselves to be, interested in excusing slavery, if not upholding it, they contract early prejudices on the subject, which no subsequent experience or reflection can effectually remove. It is like the prejudice in England against "Republicanism," which is just as absurd. In this country, the most conservative, the wisest, and the best rejoice in the name of "Republican," but repudiate that of "Radical," and think the latter little better than an anarchist or incendiary. In England, a "Radical" is in bad odour enough, it is true, though thousands are proud to adopt the title, and the "Radicals" form an avowed party in Parliament; but a "Republican" is, in English estimation, many degrees worse than a Radical; and I never yet remember any man in the House of Commons bold enough openly to avow himself a "Republican."

In America, again, no man will publicly avow himself to be a "Monarchist," however he may secretly yearn after the control of the democracy by some superior power, under some other name; and even when one of the Whig prints published a communication of a correspondent, who asserted his belief "that the hereditary succession of supreme rulers furnished as good a chance of getting good men at the head of a nation as the choice by popular elec-

tion," he was soon compelled, by the force of popular indignation, to disavow all participation in his correspondent's sentiments. This is just as absurd a prejudice against "Monarchists" as the English entertain against "Republicans," because experience has proved that both forms of government, as well as an admixture of the two in one; may be made conducive to the happiness of nations; and that that is best for each which is most in accordance with the public feeling and public will.

The prejudice which regards slavery as no evil, and looks on freedom to the negro race as fraught with injury, is, I believe, quite as unfounded as the other two, and just as absurd and indefensible. Nevertheless, like the others adverted to, it is so deeply rooted, that it is as hopeless a task to talk with some people on the subject here, as it would be to try to make the English Republicans, or the Americans Monarchists; or to persuade the Irish Protestants that Catholics are worthy of civil and political equality with themselves; or Scotch Churchmen that the upholders of the voluntary system can be sincere Christians.

Many of the clergy of America have pronounced their belief, by resolutions, in solemn conference, that slavery is *not* a moral evil; and in one of my conversations upon this subject here, the opinion of Mr. Cooper, the American writer, in his recent work entitled the "American Democrat," was cited in proof of the fact, that men the most favourable to liberty in general neither thought slavery a sin nor regarded it as an evil. Here is the passage:

"Domestic slavery is an institution as old as human annals, and probably will continue, in its spirit, through different modifications, as long as man shall remain under the different degrees of civilization that mark his actual existence. Slavery is no more sinful by the Christian code than it is sinful to wear a whole coat while another is in tatters, to eat a better meal than a neighbour, or otherwise to enjoy ease and plenty, while our fellow-creatures are suffering and in want. According to the doctrines of Christ, we are 'to do as we would be done by;' but this law is not to be applied to slavery more than to any other interest of life. It is quite possible to be an excellent Christian and a slaveholder; and the relations of master and slave may be the means of exhibiting some of the mildest graces of the character, as may those of king and subject, or principal and dependant, in any of the other modifications of human institutions. In one sense, slavery may actually benefit a man, there being little doubt that the African is, in nearly all respects, better off in servitude in this country than when living in a state of barbarism at home."

It never seems to occur to these apologists for slavery that it might be worth while to leave the question, of how far the condition of bondage is better than freedom, to the decision of the individuals themselves; for, when they are reminded of this as an act of justice and fair dealing, their usual reply is, that the slaves are too ignorant to form right opinions on the subject. Thus the Democratic American assigns exactly the same reason for enslaving and

oppressing the negro, that the Sultan of Constantinople, the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, or the Pope of Rome, do for withholding from their subjects that enjoyment of civil and political privileges which in this country are extended to all, the coloured race alone excepted.

It is upon this very plea that so large a portion of the intelligent masses of the people of England are unjustly shut out from their proper participation in the enjoyment of the electoral suffrage. It was a constant argument in defence of the odious system of impressing seamen, that they were happier in a ship-of-war than they could be in a merchant vessel ; but, both in the case of the American slaves and the English seamen, the very parties who assert this prove by their own conduct that they do not themselves believe it ; as the highest reward they can bestow upon both, and which, whenever they do bestow it, they vaunt as an act of the greatest generosity, is to give to the very "happy" persons their discharge or their freedom, which would be a strange reward indeed if by that they were rendered more miserable ! Mr. Cooper, however, in another passage of the same work, admits the inevitable cessation of this very "happy" condition of the Africans in these terms :

"American slavery is distinguished from that of most other parts of the world by the circumstance that the slave is a variety of the human species, and is marked by physical peculiarities so different from his master as to render future amalgamation improbable. In ancient Rome, in modern Europe generally, and in most other countries, the slave not being thus distinguished, on obtaining his freedom was soon lost in the mass around him ; but Nature has made a stamp on the American slave that is likely to prevent this consummation, and which menaces much future ill to the country. The time must come when American slavery shall cease ; and when that day shall arrive (unless early and effectual means are devised to obviate it), two races will exist in the same region, whose feelings will be embittered by inextinguishable hatred, and who carry on their faces the respective stamps of their factions. The struggle that will follow will necessarily be a war of extermination. The evil day may be delayed, but can scarcely be averted."

This is the sort of language we have heard with respect to the West Indies for many years past, but the two races live peaceably enough together yet. This is the terror that has been hung up to warn persons against granting any sort of freedom to the dark races of Hindustan ; but every improvement in the condition of both has only shown that, the more they are placed on an equality with the whites in the eye of the law, the more harmoniously they move in the same sphere. And as to the pretended belief in the impossibility of future amalgamation, nothing but wilful blindness can shut the eyes of any man to the fact that amalgamation of the white and coloured races may exist in the future as it has done in the past, and as it does in the present ; for the country is abun-

dantly supplied with perhaps nearly a million of mulattoes, who could only have been produced by this very process of amalgamation, which is thought to be in future so impracticable!

For my own part, I do not think this mixture desirable for the happiness of either class. I believe each would be more happy if it confined itself to intercourse with those of its own blood and race; and this would be perfectly compatible with the absence of all oppression of the one by the other. But it is the sheerest blindness or hypocrisy to pretend that, if the coloured race were made free, they could not live with the whites in peace, with every motive to dwell together in harmony, while being slaves they are really "happy," with every motive to desire freedom, and to wish the barriers that keep it from them speedily and peaceably removed.

Having attended, by invitation, a public meeting held in the large room of the United States Hotel in Saratoga, for the purpose of calling the attention of the visitors to the advantage of promoting, by every possible means, the advancement of general education in their respective states, Chancellor Walworth occupying the chair, I was called upon soon after to attend another public meeting at Ballston for the promotion of the cause of temperance, at which all the farmers of the district, for many miles round, were invited, and the church was appropriated to the purpose.

We accordingly left Saratoga on the morning of Monday, the 6th of August, and, after a short stay at Ballston Springs, to see some friends who were staying there for the use of the waters, we reached Mr. Delavan's farm in time for an early dinner; after which, the whole family, including every domestic and labouring man on the estate, accompanied us to the meeting, which was fixed for five o'clock, to enable the farmers and their families who lived at a distance to get to their homes before it was too late.

The church was surrounded on our arrival with vehicles of every kind, from fine open carriages and smart phaetons and gigs down to carts and wagons, for in America every one can afford some conveyance to take them to church. There are no taxes on carriages and horses, and as the cost of keeping a family conveyance is not a fourth of what it would be in England, they are within every one's reach. The interior of the church was crowded, galleries and all, with an entirely agricultural population, and it was the finest opportunity that could be enjoyed for seeing this class in their natural state and condition.

The men among the farmers looked as much as possible like our yeomen of Cornwall, Devon, and Somerset in England. They were all decently dressed, in plain and coarse cloth garments, without the least attempt at fashion or finery. They had the large hands of labouring men, and the bronzed complexions of those who work much in the open air; for here the maxim of Poor Richard is universally observed:

"He that by the plough would thrive,
Himself must either hold or drive."

The young men were good-looking and athletic; the old men healthy and cheerful, and, with their low-crowned and broad-brimmed hats, and gray locks often flowing over their shoulders, looked grave and venerable among their children and children's children, by whom they were surrounded.

The women, both old and young, were of more delicate appearance, and did not at all resemble the farmers' wives and farmers' daughters of England. There were no ruddy cheeks nor fully-developed forms among them; but all were pale, slender, and delicate, and in their dress, air, and manner, looked more like persons who had nothing to do, than as being actively engaged either in domestic or other occupations.

This arises, no doubt, from the difference of their position and different mode of life. Instead of going to market, managing the dairy, making butter and cheese, taking care of the poultry, milking the cows, and doing a great deal of active out-door as well as in-door work, which the wives and daughters of farmers in the humble ranks of life in England do, the American women are occupied almost wholly with their children, and in strictly domestic affairs. We saw no females employed in any manner in the fields, either weeding, hoeing, clearing the ground of stones, hay-making, or in any other way, through all the tract of country over which we had yet passed; and hence, no doubt, the delicacy of appearance and manner possessed by the female population of an American agricultural district, as compared with the same class in England.

Nothing could exceed the attention paid by all the meeting to the facts and arguments in favour of the Temperance Reformation which I was enabled to lay before them in the course of a two hours' address; and at its close, a large number of the audience came forward voluntarily to join themselves to the Temperance Society, and to sign the pledge of abstinence from all that could intoxicate, as well as to discourage, by every suitable means, the use of intoxicating drinks among their friends and neighbours. The meeting was altogether a very happy one, and calculated, it was believed, to produce much good, by scattering the information there laid before the hearers through all their respective districts, as it would be the subject of conversation among them for weeks to come; and in the discussions to which it might give rise, truth would be sure to triumph.

CHAPTER XII.

Leave Ballston for the Falls of Niagara.—Departure from Schenectady by the Railroad.—Beautiful Valley of the Mohawk.—Little Falls on this River.—Rich alluvial Plains of the German Flats.—Villages of Herkimer and Frankfort.—Romantic Beauty of the Mohawk Valley.—Arrival and Stay at Utica.—Stage Journey from Utica to Syracuse.—Comparison of American and English Coaches.—Use of Sea-phrases by American Drivers.—Villages of New-Hartford, Manchester, and Vernon.—Oneida Castle.—Indian Reservations.—Arrival and Stay at Syracuse.—Journey to Auburn by wooden Railroad.—Arrival and short Stay at Auburn.—Departure from Auburn for Canandaigua.—Passage by Bridge over the Lake Cayuga.—Village built on the Seneca Falls.—Pass through Waterloo to Geneva.

ON Tuesday, the 7th of August, we quitted the hospitable mansion of Mr. Delavan on our projected tour to the Falls of Niagara, this being considered the best season of the year for making the journey, and seeing the Falls to advantage.

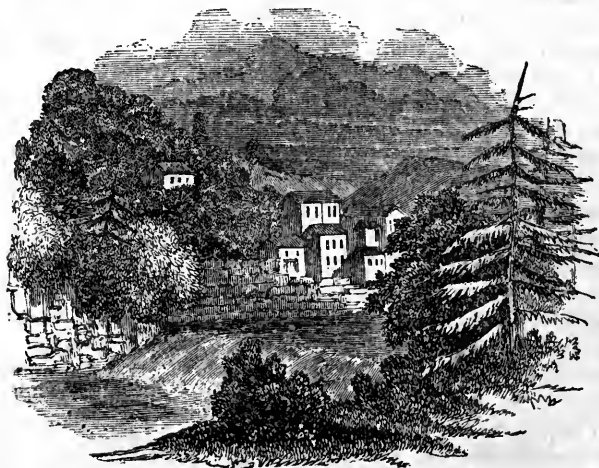
Mr. Delavan accompanied us as far as Schenectady, where we took the railroad for Utica at ten o'clock; and, starting from thence, proceeded along the Valley of the Mohawk River, which winds its way from the westward till it empties itself into the Hudson, and by it into the Atlantic. On leaving Schenectady, we crossed over the stream of the Mohawk by a bridge of 800 feet in length, going in a northerly direction, but after a space of about a mile the road curved to the west, and ran along in nearly the direction of the stream, chiefly on its northern bank, bringing us, after a distance of about eight miles more, into the beautiful valley named.

The first place of any size passed on our way was the village of Amsterdam, first settled, no doubt, by some patriotic Dutchman, and so called after the capital of his native country. It has about 200 houses, which are yearly increasing in number, an excellent bridge across the Mohawk, and a small stream which descends from higher ground through the village to the river, and affords good water-power for mills and manufactures. The Erie Canal, which is about 40 feet in breadth, is to be widened to nearly double its present dimensions, to admit of the requisite space for the increased navigation, no less than 400 additional boats having been launched upon the canal during this present season; and the works for this widening of the canal were just beginning to be put in operation here.

About four miles beyond this, in passing round the foot of a promontory called Tripe's Hill, the view becomes more expanded, more varied, and more beautiful, and justifies all that has been said in praise of this lovely Valley of the Mohawk, which is exquisitely rich in its scenery, and combines the soft and the wild, the cultivated and the picturesque, in an eminent degree.

A very pretty settlement, called Fonda, appeared four or five miles farther on; and as this has been fixed on for the county town of the district in which it is situated, several public buildings have already begun to make their appearance. The courthouse is of chaste Grecian architecture, surmounted by a graceful dome, which is coated with tin-plate, like the public edifices at Albany, and this, on a bright day, reflects the sun so powerfully as to give it the dazzling brightness of plated silver. A large and imposing hotel, with a lofty Ionic portico, faces the road also; and these, with other buildings rising around them, give to Fonda an air of great promise and prosperity.

Beyond this, at distances of only four or five miles apart, we passed several rising villages; among others, Palatine Bridge and Fort Plain, until we reached the spot called "The Little Falls,"

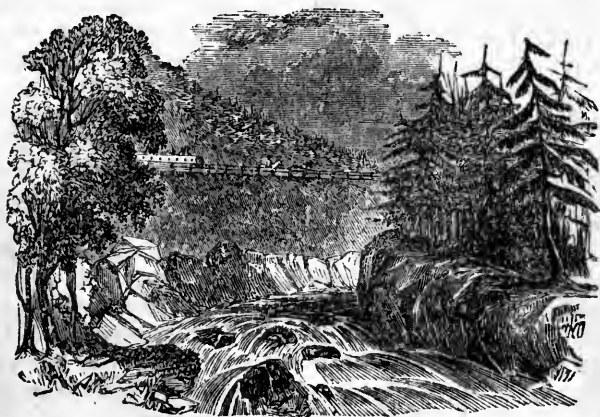


which is about sixty miles from Schenectady, the point of our departure. The chain of the Catsberg Hills crosses the Mohawk here from north to south; and the bursting of this rocky barrier, with the corresponding declivity in the stream, occasions those descents and rapids which here constitute the "Little Falls." The spot is romantic in scenery, and would furnish many striking pictures, though in some parts the valley is so narrow that the river, the stage route, and the railroad all run side by side, separated only a few feet from each other; while a perpendicular wall of cliff on the north, and broken masses of rock on the south, hem in the whole on either side, the breadth from rock to rock being apparently less than a hundred yards.

It is on the highest part of this broken and rocky descent that the village called "The Little Falls" is seated; and the situation

is chiefly chosen for the facility it affords to establish corn-mills, saw-mills, and other establishments requiring the aid of water-power, which is here very considerable, and completely under control. Already there are upward of 3000 inhabitants at this place, and hundreds come to add to their numbers every year, attracted by the excellence of its position for trade and manufactures; with a rich and fertile country all around it, and a canal on either hand, to send its productions east or west, as they may be required. As the descent is here about forty feet in a mile, there are five locks on the Erie Canal, and eight locks on the one that preceded it in this place; both, however, being now connected by an aqueduct crossing over the river, of the length of 184 feet.

The great charm of the spot to the traveller is, however, the romantically beautiful combinations of scenery with which it abounds: massive rock, running water, fertile fields, rich orchards, wild woods, beetling cliffs, and soft and verdant plains, all unite in composing a succession of the most delightful pictures that the lover of nature could wish to dwell upon.



Beyond this gorge of the hills the Valley of the Mohawk begins to expand, and grows wider and wider as you approach to the west; the district being here called the German Flats, no doubt from the Germans being the earliest settlers on these rich alluvial plains. The village of Herkimer is the only one of note in this district, being about seven miles beyond "The Little Falls," and fourteen before you reach Utica. The village contains about 2000 inhabitants, having a handsome courthouse and some other public buildings, besides about 200 dwellings. A little to the east of it is the stream on which the celebrated Trenton Falls are situated, at a distance of about twenty miles. This stream falls into the Mohawk, and is crossed near the point of their junction by a well-built bridge.

From hence to Utica, through the village of Frankfort, the country continues level; but, though highly fertile, and well adapted to agriculture or pasture, it is tame after the beauties of the Mohawk Valley, which is equal to the loveliest spots in Devonshire or Somerset, resembling in some places the Valley of the Tamar in the one, and the Vale of Glastonbury in the other, but more beautiful and more romantic than either, as well as more extensive than both united. Altogether it is one of the most enchanting tracts of country through which I have passed for many years, reminding me forcibly of some of the delicious valleys of Persia, but having more grandeur, though not more softness, than any of these, from the frequent mingling of the wildest with the most luxuriant features of nature. I was, indeed, so much enraptured with its beauty, that, if I had not been restricted to time, I would have willingly returned immediately to re-enjoy its scenery.

We reached Utica about 3 o'clock, having been thus five hours in performing the whole distance of seventy-eight miles, or at the average rate of about fifteen miles and a half per hour. We remained here to sleep, and passed the evening with some friends to whom I had letters of introduction; but, intending to remain at Utica a week on our return journey, all examination of the town was reserved till that period.

On the morning of Wednesday, August 8, we left Utica in an extra, as the regular stage had set out in the middle of the night, and proceeded on by the high turnpike road towards Syracuse, where we intended making our next halt. It is not usual to travel in postchaises in this country, but, in lieu of this, extra coaches, with nine seats, will be furnished on any part of the road, if the persons engaging them will pay the regular stage-fare for eight passengers. We were fortunate in finding an agreeable party of three persons, which, added to our own of the same number, enabled us to take an extra between us and divide the expense; and in this way the carriage is entirely under the direction of the party occupying it as to stoppages, hours of setting out, &c.

These coaches, whether stage or extra, are very heavily built, though airy and commodious when the passengers are once seated. The baggage is all carried in a large leather case projecting from behind, and the coaches are painted with very gaudy colours. The horses are large, strong, and good; but the harness is coarse, ill fitted, and dirty. There is no guard and no outside passengers; and the coachman, or driver, as he is here universally called, is generally very ill-dressed, though civil, and well qualified for his duty, notwithstanding that he receives no fees whatever from any of the passengers by the way; and it is certainly an agreeable thing for an English traveller to find himself on the road, with his fare paid once for all, without the frequent opening of the coach door for the shilling and half crown due, by usage, to the coachman and guard, with a certainty of insolent language if it be not readily paid.

The rate of stage-travelling varies between six and eight miles the hour, but is more frequently the former than the latter. The roads are in general wretched, full of deep ruts and elevations, that jolt and shake the traveller to a painful degree; while, in appearance, the American stagecoach, with its horses, harness, and fittings, is as inferior to the light, smart, and trim coaches of Bath, Brighton, and Dover, that start from Charing Cross and Piccadilly, as a heavily-laden merchant-ship is to a beautiful corvette or light frigate, or—to do the Americans justice in another department, in which they excel us—as the deeply-laden collier going up the Thames is to one of their beautiful pilot schooners or packets.

While on this subject, I may mention that a great many even of the coach-phrases in America are derived from a seafaring life; as, for instance, instead of the coachman coming to the door, as in England, and asking, "Are ye all in, gentlemen?" the American driver's question is, "Are ye all aboard?" and instead of the signal of the English guard, "All right," which precedes the crack of the whip, the American bookkeeper, when he hands up the way-bill, exclaims, "Go ahead!"

Proceeding by the stage route from Utica, we first passed through a small village called New-Hartford, seated on a stream named Sadaquada, here called a creek; another instance of the nautical origin of many of the American names and phrases. A creek is a familiar term to seamen, because every inlet from the sea up a narrow strait of land is so called; but here the term is applied to small inland rivers hundreds of miles from the sea. Ascending from hence over a rising hill, we had a fine view of Hamilton College, one of the public seminaries of education pointed out to us. The landscape, of which it formed a part, was pleasing; and the country around it well wooded and in good order.

A few miles farther on we came to Manchester, very unlike its great dingy and smoky namesake in England. This was entirely an agricultural village, with about 1000 inhabitants, enjoying a pure air, a rural prospect, with well-cultivated farms all around it, and, as far as I could learn, there was not a single manufactory, nor even the germe of one, yet planted at this spot.

Vernon is the name of another pretty village, seven or eight miles beyond Manchester, at which we changed horses and drivers, the usual distance performed by each team being from eight to twelve miles. This contains a glass factory, and some few mills worked by water-power.

Five miles beyond this we passed through a spot called Oneida Castle, the lands around which formerly belonged to the Oneida Indians, under the title of the Oneida Reservation. In general, when treaties were made between the government of the United States and any of the Indian tribes, certain portions of land were set apart for their use, either as hunting-grounds or for cultivation.

These were called "Indian Reservations," and this was one of them. It appears that the Oneida Indians had acquired some knowledge of practical agriculture; but their cultivation was so unskilful and so unprofitable compared with that of the whites by whom they were surrounded, and the feeling between the two races was so far from being friendly, that the government adopted, as a settled rule of policy, the determination to remove as many of the Indians as they could persuade to consent to that measure, to the territory west of the Mississippi or in Western Michigan. The Oneidas chose the latter, and have some time since emigrated to that quarter; and their lands in this reservation having been purchased of them by whites, are now in the same state of improved cultivation as the surrounding estates of their neighbours.

From hence we passed, at distances of from three to five miles apart, the small villages of Lenox, Quality Hill, and Chittenango, where we halted, and walked a short distance to see some remarkable petrifications of trees at the foot of a hill, from whence issue various springs of water, that leave incrustations in their track, and probably occasioned the petrifications seen. So many travellers have taken portions of this for their cabinets, that but little at present remains without farther excavations; we succeeded, however, in getting a fine specimen, with a part of the unchanged wood of the interior attached to the petrification of the bark.

Nothing of peculiar interest occurred between this and Syracuse, which we reached about four in the afternoon, having left at eight in the morning, and were thus eight hours performing fifty miles, or at the average rate of six and a quarter miles per hour.

We remained at Syracuse to sleep; but here also, having made arrangements for my remaining a week on my return journey, no examination was made of the town.

On the following morning, Thursday, August 9th, we left Syracuse in a coach that conveyed us to a railway, beginning at a distance of three or four miles from the town, to take us to Auburn; but great was our disappointment at finding that, instead of a locomotive engine, the cars were drawn by horses, of which there were only two to draw about twenty passengers, the horses being placed one before the other, as tandems are driven, and not abreast. The rails, too, were of wood instead of iron, and the rate of travelling was estimated to be about six miles an hour. We had to wait half an hour before starting, and our progress was then so tedious that we all thought of getting out to walk the distance, as the most expeditious mode of the two, when, to add to our mortification, we met a train of cars drawn by a single horse coming right against us, and, the rails being single and the places for turning off being wide apart, we had to shift our tandem pair from the front to the hind part of the train, and be drawn back about a mile and a half to get off the track, and let our advancing rival go past us.

After a very tedious ride of four hours in performing twenty-two miles, we reached Auburn, the entrance to which was by the great State-prison and the other public buildings, which gave it a very striking appearance. We halted here for refreshments, and then with another party took an extra coach to proceed onward by way of Cayuga and Geneva to Canandaigua, where we proposed to sleep, making arrangements before we left for our return to Auburn, and inspection of its great State-penitentiary on our return journey from Niagara.

On leaving Auburn we were struck with the high state of cultivation to which the lands on each side of the high road had been brought, and the pretty villas and neat farmhouses every now and then peering through the trees. The cattle, too, were in excellent condition, and everything bore the marks of fertility, industry, and prosperity.

After a ride of about six or seven miles through a beautiful farming country, we approached the village of Cayuga, seated upon the lake of that name, of which we had a commanding view. This fine sheet of water is nearly forty miles long, and about two miles in average breadth. Its waters are remarkably clear, and are said to abound with fish. The lake is generally shallow, but a steam-boat plies on it between Cayuga and Ithaca, a distance of thirty-six miles. It is crossed by a wooden bridge, which is upward of a mile in length; it resembles the long bridge across the Potomac, from the City of Washington to the Virginia side of the river; and the prospect of the waters and its surrounding shores, from the centre of this bridge, is worth a short halt to enjoy.

Beyond Cayuga, at a distance of four miles, is the River Seneca, which has a rapid descent, like the Little Falls of the Mohawk, the declivity here being forty-six feet. A village has accordingly been built at this spot, which is called "The Village of Seneca Falls." It is not more than seven years since it was begun, and it has already about 600 dwelling-houses, seven churches, and 5000 inhabitants. The establishments here are chiefly mills and manufactories, all requiring the aid of water-power, of which there seems such abundance throughout this fine state, that coal and steam are hardly required for this purpose at present.

The next village at which we halted to change horses was called Waterloo, but for what reason I could not learn, except that it was first founded in 1815, and was so called probably from the battle of Waterloo, which was fought in that year. It is seated on one of the outlets of the Seneca River, and has accordingly several mills turned by the stream. A courthouse and jail give it an air of some importance, but there are not more than 1000 inhabitants at present residing here, many, it is said, having gone to the more promising village of Seneca Falls.

It was about four o'clock when we approached Geneva, which

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opened upon us in all its beauty, and appeared to be the most beautiful of all the inland towns or villages we had yet seen. The lake, at the head of which it is seated, is thirty-five miles in length, and from three to four in breadth. It is called "The Seneca Lake," as the Indians of the Seneca tribe originally occupied the borders of both the lake and the river that still retain their name. Its surrounding shores are eminently beautiful, having all the variety of sloping lawns and woods in some parts, and high cliffs and projecting promontories in others. The town itself, which is seated at its northern extremity, or at the head of the lake, looks like a series of clustered villas, scattered in groups, and deeply imbosomed in the richest groves; while the glittering domes and slender spires of the public buildings and places of worship, rising from among the dwellings, add a richness, if not a splendour, to the whole.

We halted at Geneva to dine, and passed an agreeable hour there in rambling through the town, and enjoying the many beautiful prospects of the lake, which are presented from various points of view. I was surprised not to see any yachts or sailing-boats on so beautiful a sheet of water as this, especially as it has three peculiarities which are so favourable to boating, namely, that it abounds with salmon, trout, and other fish; that there is almost always a breeze on the water; and that it is never closed with ice. But, notwithstanding the fine pieces of water, both salt and fresh, with which America abounds, the taste for aquatic excursions, except in steam-vessels, does not exist; and I do not remember to have either seen or heard of a yacht or pleasure-boat, sailing or rowing, kept by any person in the country.

CHAPTER XIII.

Beautiful Position and Appearance of Geneva.—Peculiarities of the Lake on which it stands.—Pretended Female-Saviour of the World.—Arrival at the Village of Canandaigua.—Description of the Town and Lake of that Name.—Excellent Provision for promulgating the Law.—History of the Tract of the Genesee Country.—Sale of six Millions of Acres of Land.—Purchase Money, eightpence Sterling per Acre.—Same Land now worth fifty Dollars per Acre.—Arrival at Rochester, on the Genesee River.—Embark on the Erie Canal for Buffalo.—Statistics of the Erie Canal.—Names of Ancient and Modern Cities along its Banks.—Description of the Boats on the Canal.—Locks of the Canal at Lockport.—Arrival at Buffalo, on Lake Erie.—Journey to the Cataract-house at Niagara.

THE village of Geneva contains at present about 650 buildings, with a population of 4000 persons, a public college and an academy, with eight churches; but the chaste style of architecture observed in the buildings, the many agreeable shrubberies and gardens, and the charm thrown over the whole by the beautiful lake, make it

one of the most inviting places of summer residence I have ever seen; and when America comes to possess a class of men of fortune retired from business, who will seek a beautiful country residence in which to spend the remnant of their days, Geneva cannot fail to be preferred for such purposes, and to be abundantly peopled with such a class of inhabitants.

The villages around and near the lake are many of them remarkable. One of these, on the eastern borders, is called Ovid; and nearly opposite to it, on the western shore, is another called Dresden. It was near to this that once resided one of the long line of religious pretenders, of which the world has been so prolific, and of which America has produced her full share. This personage was a woman named Jemima Wilkinson, and she pretended that she was the saviour of the world.

Like other religious impostors, from Mohammed to Joanna Southcott, she found it easy to obtain believers; for mankind seem in every country to present a large number of persons ready to entertain any absurd belief that is offered to their acceptance. The trial which this pretended saviour of the world made of the faith of her followers is sufficiently ingenious to be recorded. She caused it to be announced to them that, on a certain day and hour, she would start from a given point of the lake, and exhibit her Divine power by walking across its surface to the opposite shore. Crowds were of course attracted to the spot by mere curiosity, and many also came believing. These strewed her pathway with white handkerchiefs for her to walk on, from the carriage in which she came to the edge of the water, in imitation, probably, of the multitude spreading palms in the way when Jesus entered into Jerusalem.

Surrounded by these faithful followers, she advanced as far as the water's edge, and ventured about ankle-deep into the liquid element. Seeing, however, that this yielded to the pressure of her foot, as it would do to that of any ordinary mortal, and that it would be dangerous to go farther, she adroitly turned round to her adherents, and asked them, with a loud voice, whether they really had faith in her power to walk on the lake; for, if they had not, it would be impossible for her to do so. They exclaimed, with one voice, that their faith was complete, and without a shadow of a doubt. Upon which she cunningly replied, that if they really believed in her power, it was for that very reason fully unnecessary to exhibit it; and, returning to the carriage in which she came, she left the deluded multitude to reflect on their own folly. The wonder is, that in this country of Lynch law, where tarring and feathering for mere difference of opinion is so often practised,* the said

* In a late American newspaper, which I regret to have mislaid, an extract is given from one of the journals of the Crusaders in the Holy Land, showing that the practice of pouring boiling pitch on the shaven head of an offender, and afterward covering him with feathers, was used by order of Richard Cœur de Lion, the king of England, during his wars in Palestine, as a punishment for convicted thieves.

Jemima was not ducked, which in her case might have been beneficial, as putting her floating powers to the test, and helping to cool her fervour.

We left Geneva after dinner, admiring the prospect of the town and lake from the height above, as we quitted it, quite as much as when we entered; and, proceeding on our way to Canandaigua, a distance of about fifteen miles, we arrived after a drive of three hours, so that it was dark when we alighted at the hotel.

In the morning we had a fine prospect of the town and lake, which was almost as beautiful as that of Geneva. Immediately in front of our hotel was an open square, in which the public buildings were placed, including a courthouse, prison, and office of the county-clerk and town-clerk. It deserves mention that, in the smallest township of America, the town-clerk is an officer who is sure to be found at his office, where are always deposited a complete set of the laws of the state, to which the humblest citizen may at all times, within reasonable hours, have access; in every county town, also, the county-clerk has at his office a complete set of the laws of the United States, so that all the acts, whether of the local legislatures or the general government of Congress, which have become law, may be inspected at all times, without fee or reward, by every citizen bound to obey them; besides which, they are uniformly published, at the time of their promulgation, at full length, and for several times in succession, in the General Government newspaper at Washington if acts of Congress, or in the State newspaper if the acts of any separate state only.

This is certainly a much more sensible practice than that which prevails in England, where no pains are taken by any government officer or parliamentary agent to promulgate the laws in detail as they pass, or to multiply depositaries in which they may be found by any one desirous of consulting them without fee or reward, so that we are guilty of the injustice as well as absurdity of making laws for the regulation of men's conduct, taking no pains to ensure their knowledge of these laws, and yet shutting out, in every case, the plea which so many thousands of British subjects might truly urge, namely, their entire ignorance of the very laws, for the unintentional infraction of which they are liable to punishment.

The square of Canandaigua forms the centre of the town, and from it branches off, in opposite directions, the principal street, which is laid out and lined with trees for a length of two miles, and is of ample and uniform breadth in every part, being eight rods, or 132 feet, wide. It is lined on each side with separate villas, surrounded by gardens, rather than by continuous buildings; and in this respect it resembles some of the fine avenues at Chowringee, in Calcutta, where the English principally reside; the houses being almost uniformly white, with frequent porticoes, green Venetian blinds, and balustrades or verandas in front and by the

sides. There are, besides the private buildings, a male and female academy, a bank, and four churches, the largest of which is the Episcopal, and is a great ornament to the town.

The Lake of Canandaigua is smaller than that of Cayuga or Geneva, being only 14 miles long, and from one to two miles in breadth. But it has many beautiful seats upon its banks; and its woods, gardens, and orchards give a great richness to its beauty. A steamboat formerly ran on the lake daily, but has lately been discontinued; but considerable trade is carried on here in flour and agricultural produce, of which this is one of the principal outlets of the surrounding district. The number of houses is estimated at 500, and the population at from 5 to 6000 persons.

The history of the tract of land on which Canandaigua is seated furnishes a striking example of the rapid increase in the value of landed property, when changed from a wilderness to an inhabited country.

This tract was originally called the Genesee country, and belonged to the State of Massachusetts. It contained 6,000,000 of acres, and was sold by the state to two private purchasers, named Phelps and Gorham, for the sum of 1,000,000 dollars, or six acres for a dollar. This was in 1787; and in the following year, Phelps, who resided in Massachusetts, set out to take possession of this new domain. The occasion was deemed so solemn, and the undertaking held to be so perilous, that when he took leave of his family, his neighbours, and the minister of the parish, it was regarded by them all as a final adieu, as they hardly ventured to hope for his safe return, and shed tears copiously at their separation. Pursuing his western course of travel, he arrived at the spot where Canandaigua now stands, which was then wholly covered with thick forest, and, assembling together the chiefs of the Six Nations, to whom this territory then belonged—for all that the State of Massachusetts could grant was the right of settlement if the Indians consented—and with the assistance of a State commissioner, who was also a missionary, by whom he was accompanied, he concluded a treaty with them for the purchase of 2,500,000 acres.

The Indians, among whom were the well-known chiefs "the Farmer's Brother" and "Red Jacket" (who died at Buffalo about seven years ago), wished to make the Genesee River the western boundary of the white man's range; but this was got over by what must be called a stratagem or fraud; for Phelps represented his intention to establish saw-mills at the falls of Genesee, where Rochester now stands, and, under pretence of wanting a large timber-yard for the operation of his mills, obtained from them a tract of 24 miles by 12, extending from the falls to the Lake Ontario northward, and from the river towards the back country 12 miles westward. In 1790, another portion of 1,250,000 acres was sold to another purchaser, Robert Morris, for eightpence sterling per

acre, just the price of the former tract, being about one sixth of a dollar; and this purchaser sold his tract soon after to Sir William Pulteney in England.

The first two purchasers, Phelps and Gorham, were unable to complete their contract with the State of Massachusetts, so that about 4,000,000 of acres out of their original purchase reverted back again to the state; and in 1796, the same Robert Morris purchased this, when, after selling out portions to individuals to raise the funds necessary for completing his own purchase, he mortgaged the remainder to a large moneyed company at Amsterdam, called "The Holland Company," who foreclosed the mortgage at the expiration of the term for which their advances were made. These are now the possessors of this large tract, from which they make occasional sales to individuals, of lands which originally cost them about sixpence per acre, at the price of from 20 to 50 dollars per acre, according as it is wanted for farming purposes or residences; the average value of the cleared agricultural land here being from 25 to 30 dollars per acre throughout; and every year augments its price.

We left Canandaigua about eight o'clock, in an extra coach for Rochester, on the morning of Friday, August 10, which we reached, after a ride of 27 miles, in five hours. Here also I made arrangements for staying a week on our return journey, and therefore we pushed on without seeing anything but the first aspect of the town.

As we had now become fatigued, from the long journey and the rough roads over which we had come, it was thought best to take a canal packet-boat from hence to Buffalo, especially as it would give us an opportunity of seeing one of the most striking portions of this great work, in the succession of locks at Lockport. We accordingly embarked in one of these packets, and left Rochester for Buffalo about three o'clock.

Of this magnificent canal I have already spoken, in the general description of the extent and resources of this state, written at Albany. It was commenced on the auspicious day of the 4th of July, 1817, at Albany, and completed in 1825 at Buffalo, the whole length of the canal being 363 miles, and the difference of levels between its two termini 688 feet, beginning at the Hudson River and ending at Lake Erie. There are 83 locks, of 90 feet in length and 15 feet in breadth each, constructed in the most substantial manner of stone-masonry; and there are 18 aqueducts for conveying the water over rivers and roads in the way, which aqueducts are also built of stone, and generally on arches. Three of these cross the Mohawk River, the two longest of which are 748 and 1188 feet in length; and another, crossing the Genesee River at Rochester, is 804 feet in length. There is also a great embankment of 72 feet in height, which extends for nearly 2 miles; and at Lockport, where 5 locks rise in succession, one after another,

lifting the boats up 60 feet perpendicular, there is a cut of nearly three miles through a solid bed of rock, for a depth of about 20 feet all the way. The average breadth of the canal is 40 feet at the top and 28 feet at the bottom, and the average depth is 4 feet. The whole expense of its construction was about eleven millions of dollars, or upward of two millions sterling; and by a recent act of the Legislature, the company are authorized to widen the canal from 40 to 70 feet, to increase its depth to six feet, and to double the number of its locks, which will cost, it is thought, about ten millions of dollars more.

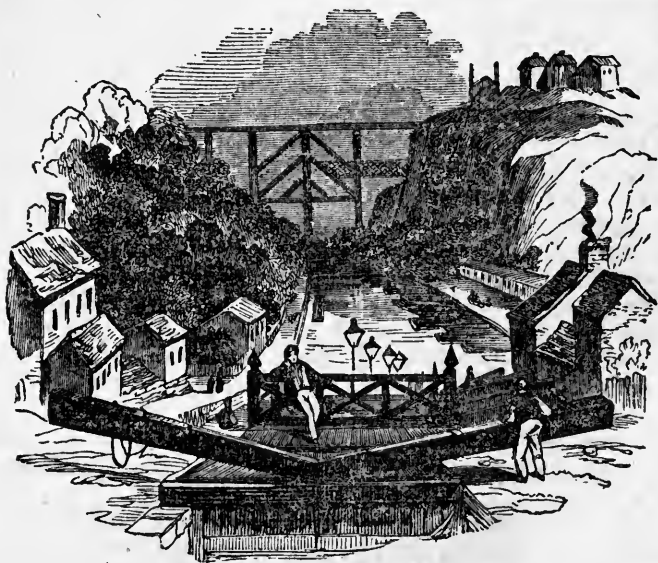
No money, however, could be better laid out, as this communication opens a way from the Atlantic at New-York almost to the Pacific at Astoria, by passing through the Upper Lakes of Erie, Huron, and Michigan, and by the Ohio into the Mississippi, Missouri, Arkansas, and Red River up to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, from whence, before many years are over, a way will no doubt be opened to the Columbia River, which discharges itself into the Pacific. The trade on this canal is every year increasing, and new boats are building and launching upon it every month, no less than 400 having been added in the present year, making the whole number at this time about 3700, giving employment to 22,200 persons in navigating them. Canals from neighbouring towns leading towards this great central highway are also very numerous, and constantly on the increase, so that the tolls, which are very light, already pay a large revenue to the state, and this must improve with every augmentation of its commerce.

One cannot fail to be struck with the large number of names of ancient and modern cities which are given to the villages along this canal route, of which the following are only a few: West Troy, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Frankfort, Utica, Rome, New-London, Syracuse, Canton, Berlin, Lyons, Palmyra, Macedonville, and Scio; besides Peru and Albion, as counties; Jordan, from the sacred river of Palestine; and Medina, the burial-place of Mohammed.

The boats on the canal are constructed, some exclusively for cargo, some exclusively for passengers, and some for a union of both. The one in which we embarked was one adapted for passengers only, and, as such, was called a packet-boat. It was upward of eighty feet in length, nine feet in extreme breadth; about fifty feet of the length was appropriated to the cabin, leaving ten feet for spare room at the prow, and twenty feet for steerage-deck at the stern. The long but narrow cabin was sufficiently lofty to admit of walking with ease, and the roof of it formed the upper deck of the boat. On each side of the cabin were seats, neatly cushioned, with a succession of windows, and Venetian blinds, to open or shut at pleasure; and through the centre of the whole ran the long table at which the passengers took their meals. The

boat was drawn by three horses, who were kept on a full trot, and changed every eight or ten miles, so that our rate of speed was about five miles an hour. As a day-conveyance it was easy and agreeable, notwithstanding the occasional inconvenience of stooping under low bridges from time to time crossing the canal, as this is felt only by those who choose to stand on the upper deck. But for a night-conveyance we found it extremely unpleasant. At nine o'clock the cabin is cleared to put up the hanging bed-places, which are broad shelves suspended by cords, hanging over each other in a triple tier on each side, so that, besides the discomfort of such close stowage, it is a matter of some difficulty either to get in or out.

We were glad, therefore, when the morning came to release us from our imprisonment; and our pleasure was greatly increased by arriving just at sunrise at the Lockport station, where the boat was



lifted up, by five successive locks, a height of 60 feet above the lower level in less than 15 minutes, while in the same period of time another boat descended from the higher to the lower level, through a corresponding series of locks, ranged side by side with the ascending ones, there being thus a double range of locks, the ascending and the descending, both in operation at the same time. The masonry is of the most solid and excellent workmanship, and everything about it is well calculated for durability.

The village of Lockport, which is partly on the lower and partly on the higher level, contains at present about 5000 inhabitants,

though in 1821 there were only two houses in the place. There are now also seven churches, a courthouse, many spacious stores, about 600 houses, and several large hotels: such is the rapid growth of the settlement along this track of the canal.

Beyond Lockport, at a distance of about seven miles, the canal enters, at a place called Pindleton, the River Tonnewanda, called here, as usual, the Tonnewanda "Creek. This broad and beautiful stream, flowing through a densely-wooded tract, was an agreeable relief after the narrow limits of the canal; and we continued to pass through it for a distance of 12 miles, till we again entered the canal on the borders of the great Niagara River above the Falls, and ran side by side with it, separated only by the narrowest neck of embankment, till we reached the village of Black Rock, at a distance of eight miles; when, going through another portion of the canal, cut off from the river by a ridge of rock and stone, as a breakwater, for about three miles, we entered the port of Buffalo, on the Lake Erie, about twelve o'clock, having been twenty-one hours on the canal.

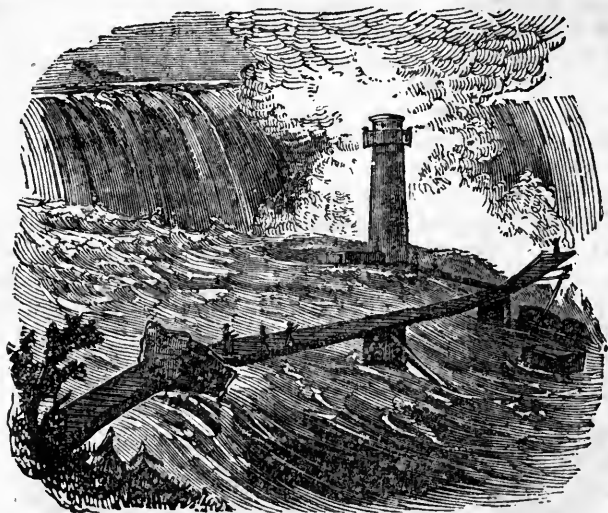
We remained here but a few hours, to make arrangements for my delivering a course of lectures, to commence in the ensuing week; and, having seen the gentlemen to whom I had letters of introduction, and completed these arrangements, we left Buffalo at half past five by the railroad car for Niagara, intending to pass four or five days at the Falls, and, after a tedious ride of 22 miles, we reached the Cataract Hotel about nine o'clock.

CHAPTER XIV.

First Sight of the Rapids above the Falls.—Visit to the great Cataract above and below.—Impressions created by different Views.—Lines addressed to Niagara.—Repeated Excursions to every Part of the Falls.—General Description of the Locality.—Indian Etymology.—"The Thunder of the Waters."—Difference between the American and Canadian Falls.—Circuit of Goat Island.—Bridge and Ferry.—Breadth of the Strait, and of the two Cataracts.—Quantity of Water discharged every Minute.—Gradual Retrocession of the Falls.—Facts of Recent date in support of this.—Daring Leap over the Cataract.—Appearance of the Scene in Winter.—Vast Mound of Ice.—Ascent to its Summit.—Historical Notices of the Falls.—Register of Travellers.—Village of Manchester.—City of the Falls.—Hotels.

THE hotel in which we slept was so near the rapids, just above the brink of the great Fall on the American side, that the tremulation occasioned by the rolling waters kept our windows in a constant rattle, while the unceasing roar of the rushing torrent, flowing within a few yards of the balcony of our bedroom, kept us awake till a late hour; and when we awoke at daylight, after a broken and feverish sleep, our first act was to hasten into the veranda, to

survey the scene around us. Being on the higher level of the river, we could see from hence, looking downward to the northwest, the immense mass of rising mist, which told us where the foaming cataract descended, and between our own position and this rising cloud was a beautifully varied surface of islands and islets, bridges thrown across the turbulent rapids from rock to rock, thickly foliaged woods, and turbulent and rushing torrents, here and there broken by drifts of wreck, or impeded by forest trees that had got entangled in the rocks, and the whole mass boiling like a caldron. The combination was full of beauty and of grandeur; but this was no more than a faint glimpse of the glories of the scene.

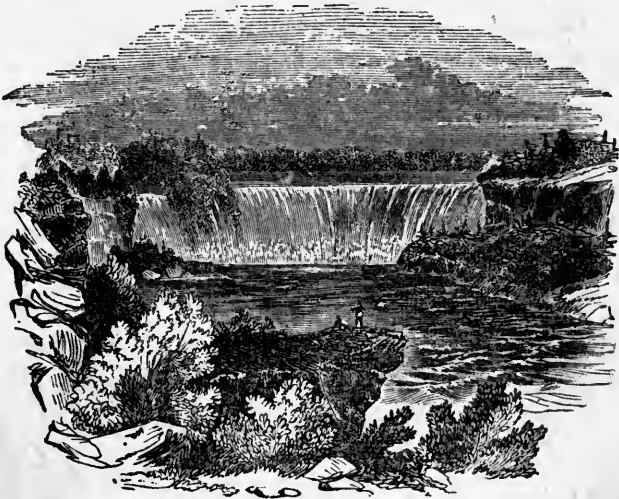


We therefore devoted the whole of the day to a visit to the Falls, and, after seeing them from all the most interesting points of view on both sides the river, as well as from the lower level of the stream below—from the northern and western extremities of Goat Island, overhanging the cataracts, on the American side; from the table-rock and pavilion heights on the Canada side, and from the ferry across the river just at the foot of the Falls, and between the two—we returned at night more gratified with the beauties and wonders of the spot than we had ever been before with any work of nature or of art. Our feelings, as we stood on different points of the scene, lost in awe and admiration, were too deep for verbal utterance, and our walk was therefore more than usually silent, my wife, my son, and myself scarcely interchanging any other words than ejaculations of delight or expressions of awe at the splendour and sublimity of the whole.

During one of these silent pauses, as we sat upon a rock, sur-

rounded by an almost untrodden grassy sward, and thickly overhung by the wild foliage of the woods, but within full sight of one of the grandest views of the watery mass, I traced with a pencil some lines to Niagara, which, as they may give the reader some idea of the feelings by which I was impressed, I have placed with the other documents assigned to the Appendix, where they will be found.*

We remained, on the whole, five days at Niagara, two of which we passed on the American side, and three on the British; and during all that period we were almost constantly engaged, from sunrise to sunset, in examining every part of the Falls and their surrounding scenery, crossing the river from side to side in boats at least a dozen times, and being often enveloped in the thick spray occasioned by the descent of the waters, from the nearness of our approach to their falling columns, so that we had an opportunity of seeing all its beauties in every variety of position, light, and shade, and watching its ever-changing hues at each successive hour of the day.



Many persons had expressed to us their disappointment at the first sight of the Falls, though they admitted that a longer stay near them had gradually developed all their grandeur and beauty. I know not to what cause or to what kind of temperament to attribute this; but certainly we needed no progressive development to give us the fullest impression of their magnificence and sublimity. It appeared to us from the first as one of the grandest scenes of nature that we had ever visited, and it continued to leave the same

* See Appendix, No. III.

impression on our minds to the last ; nor was there any single moment between these two periods in which our admiration or our wonder abated in the slightest degree.

During our stay on both sides of the Falls, we had personal communication with many who had resided near them all their lives ; with others who had visited them almost every year ; and with many who might be called the depositaries of all the traditional information that exists respecting them ; and with the assistance of these authorities, and such published details as were accessible through other sources, the following history and description of them was prepared :

Niagara is not, strictly speaking, a river, though it is constantly so called, but rather a strait, being merely a channel of about thirty-five miles in length, and from one to five miles in breadth, by which the waters of the upper Lake Erie are discharged into the lower Lake Ontario, and, proceeding onward from thence, forms the River St. Lawrence, which empties itself into the sea. Nearly midway between these two lakes, Erie and Ontario, or at the exact distance of about twenty miles below the former and fifteen miles above the latter, occurs a sudden break in the continuity of the upper level, over which the waters flow ; and this break, exhibiting itself in the form of a series of perpendicular cliffs, stretching right across the stream, with curvatures and irregular hollows or recesses, to the height of 164 feet, the sudden descent of the whole body of water over these perpendicular cliffs, in its passage from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, constitutes the Falls of Niagara. The name is Indian, and is pronounced thus, *Nee-agg-arrah*, and not *Nia-gā-rah*, as is sometimes erroneously done. It is an Iroquois word, and signifies "the thunder of the waters ;" and certainly no name could be more significantly appropriate than this.

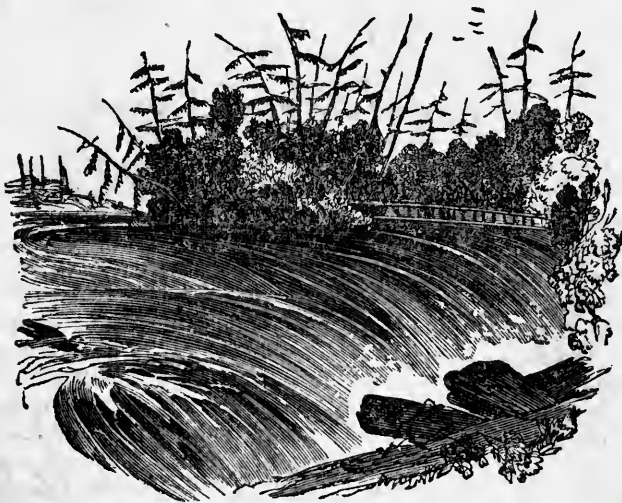
The Falls are broken into two separate masses by the intervention of an island called Goat Island, lying nearly midway in the stream, and projecting its northwestern extremity to the very edge of the perpendicular cliff. The body of water between this island and the American shore is called the American Fall, and the body of water between the same island and the Canada shore is called the Canada Fall.

The American Fall is about 900 feet in breadth, and the water descends nearly perpendicularly over a cliff of 164 feet in height. The Canada Fall is about 1800 feet in breadth, including a deep indentation or hollow, called the Horse-shoe Fall, and it descends with a greater projectile curve beyond the perpendicular line over cliffs of 158 feet in depth.

The greatest mass of water rushes over the Canada Fall, and on this is seen to the greatest advantage the rich emerald green of the liquid and moving element. The bright sunlight upon the waters of this Fall produces tints of indescribable beauty, and the mingling

of the foaming jets of snowy white with the clear and transparent aquamarine brilliance that dwells upon the crest of the Fall, produces a constant variety in the aspect of the whole. At the foot of both the Falls, the clouds of mist or spray occasioned by the boiling turbulence of the agitated mass rise up like the smoke of incense before one of the grandest natural altars in the world, and ascend into the air in curling wreaths till it seems to mingle with the clouds of heaven.

The walk around Goat Island, and over the slender and almost rocking bridges that are thrown across the rapids from it to the shore, and from it to the smaller islands near, is full of beauty; while the dark shadows of its forest trees, the dizzy heights of its beetling cliffs, the beautiful green sward of its least frequented walks, the narrow bridge and isolated tower at the edge of the cataract, with the rushing fury of the torrents that pass between some of the narrow straits and the almost adjoining islets near its edge, furnish scenes of beauty and of interest which could never tire.



The descent to the stream below the Falls, on the American side, is by a series of wooden stairs, sufficiently safe, though rude in their construction, and tedious from their number and steepness, the whole height exceeding 200 feet. The ascent from the stream on the Canada side is by a good broad road, sufficiently steep, but practicable in its zigzag angles for horses, or even for a carriage, and cut chiefly out of the rocky cliff.

At either side is a set of slips, from which the ferry-boats are launched, when needed to convey passengers across. The boats are well built and well adapted to the service, each capable of con-

taining six or eight persons conveniently ; they are rowed across by a single man with a pair of oars ; and although the agitation of the water produces what is called a great ripple on the surface, yet there is no real danger in the passage ; nor, as far as we could learn, had any boat ever been upset or lost in going across.

On the Canada side, a guard of British troops are stationed, to take the names of all persons going and coming, and the object of their visit, a copy of which is sent each day to the commanding officer of the station. On the American side, all is perfectly free. The British regiment stationed here at the period of our visit was the 43d foot, or "The Queen's Own ;" and such had been the desertions from it to the United States, that the officers themselves admitted their loss of men to be extensive. They usually secrete themselves till night in some adjoining wood, then scramble down the cliff at some point previously explored, and either go across on a rude raft, or supported by single logs of wood, or sometimes attempt to swim without either, in which case they very frequently get drowned.

The depth of water is much greater below the Falls than above. In the distance between Lake Erie and the cataracts, which is 20 miles, the breadth of the Niagara strait is from one mile to eight or nine miles across from the American to the Canada shore, and the depth varies, in different parts, from 15 feet to 250 ; while the rate of its current varies between two and eight miles an hour, according to the nature and angles of the declivities over which it flows, the entire difference of level between the point where it leaves Lake Erie and the point where it falls into Lake Ontario being 334 feet. In the distance between the cataracts and the outlet of Niagara into the Lake Ontario, the strait winds more in its course, and the cliffs on either side are much higher, exceeding in some places 400 feet. The depth of water immediately below the Falls is considered to be greater than lower down, from the action of the falling mass on the bottom of the bed being calculated to wear it continually away ; but at half a mile distant from the Falls, the nearest point at which soundings have been taken, the depth is ascertained to be 260 feet. The scenery of the banks below the Falls, from the cataract to Lake Ontario, is more romantic than above ; and the violent rapids called the Whirlpool, which occur within this space, add much to the interest of the scene.

The quantity of water precipitated over the Falls has been thus calculated, by different authorities. President Dwight, of New-Haven, estimates it at 11,209,375 tons per hour ; and Darby calculates the mass to make 1,672,704,000 cubic feet per hour ; while another authority, Picken, makes the quantity to be 113,510,000 gallons, or 18,524,000 cubic feet per minute !

Nor is the vastness of this quantity to be wondered at, considering that this is the great drain of four large inland seas, Lake Supe-

rior, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, and Lake Erie, with all the rivers flowing into them; but it certainly excites surprise to see, a mile or two below the Falls, into what a narrow compass the whole of this surplus water is compressed, inducing a belief that there may be large cavernous openings at the foot of the Falls, through which a great portion of the water finds its way by subterraneous channels into the Lake Ontario, and beneath the natural bed of the Niagara Strait; a supposition which is greatly strengthened by the existence of many cavernous hollows beneath the Falls in the cliffs over which they are precipitated.

An opinion is generally entertained that the cataracts were once much lower down, near Lake Ontario; and that they have receded gradually, are still receding, and will continue to do so to the end of time. The appearances of the opposite cliffs on either bank warrant this belief; besides which, if the rock be operated upon at all by the friction of water, it must, in the course of centuries, gradually diminish. Now the rock of Niagara cliffs is not granitic or basaltic, but a slaty shale, lying in horizontal layers, and thus presenting those level surfaces called table-rocks. The process of its decay is visible on all sides, the usual order of that decay being first the decomposition and gradual crumbling away of the looser and more earthy parts beneath the actual edge of the cliff, thus leaving a shelving or overhanging rock projecting at the upper edge, and this, gradually losing its support, ultimately breaks away, borne down by the pressure of the rushing flood.

Underneath, or rather behind, the Canada Falls, this hollowness of the cliff is so great that some parts of it are 50 feet within the outer line of the falling water; and it is in this concave recess that visitors walk along when they descend and go behind the falls; that is, between the great mass of falling waters and the cliff over which it is hurled—so that they have cavernous hollows on the one side of their slippery path, and the rushing torrent of millions of tons of water descending on the other, the fluid element being the only medium through which the light is admitted, and the dashing spray, the eddy, winds, and the whirlpools of dust, sand, and water besetting every step of their way.

The mass called Table Rock at present projects from 40 to 50 feet at its upper edge, with a deeply-curved hollow underneath it; and from the appearance of large fractures in different parts of it, many years will probably not elapse before the projecting portion will fall off into the stream. A gentleman of Buffalo, whom we met at the Falls, remembered distinctly the separation of a large projecting mass from the American side, covering, as he thought, at least half an acre in area; and, indeed, all along the foot of the American Fall are huge masses of rock, which have from time to time been separated from the cliff above by the wearing power of the water, and thus hurled into the stream.

It is worthy of mention, as an instance of the singular taste of individuals, that a person named Sam Patch, who had acquired some celebrity for his power of leaping from great heights into the water, as from the mastheads and yardarms of ships into the sea, grew more ambitious as his fame increased, and made a round of visits to the greatest falls of the interior to repeat his feats of daring. At a point called Biddle's Staircase, where a descending flight of steps was constructed to facilitate the going beneath the American Falls, at the expense of Mr. Nicholas Biddle, the president of the United States Bank, Patch made a leap of 118 feet into the stream of the Niagara below, and came up uninjured. Subsequently to this, however, he fell a victim to his own ambition and folly combined; for in attempting, in the year 1829, to accomplish a still greater feat, by leaping from a point of rock above the centre of the Genesee Falls, at a height of 125 feet above the river, he met his death. His body never rose again to the surface after it first sunk below it; nor was it, indeed, found until some months afterward, when it appeared at the mouth of the Genesee River, about six miles below the spot from which he took this fatal leap.

The appearance of Niagara Falls in winter is said to be extremely beautiful, but few travellers find it agreeable or convenient to visit them at that inclement season. The inhabitants of the surrounding country, however, often come here during the winter, and they all bear testimony to the grandeur and beauty of the scene. The waters, of course, continue to descend then with the same force, and in the same quantity or mass, as in the summer. But about a mile or two above the cataract, and a mile or two below, the water is completely frozen over, so that passengers can walk across in perfect safety. The waters then rush out from under the ice of the upper level to supply the cataract, and pass under the ice of the lower level in their way to the St. Lawrence, for the entire surface of the Lakes Erie and Ontario are then frozen over.

The surrounding trees, instead of being clothed with foliage, are covered with the most brilliant and sparkling coruscations of snow and ice; and in a bright sunshine, the splendour of the scene is enchanting. At this period, masses of floating ice, dis severed from the frozen lake and stream above, are precipitated over the Falls in blocks of several tons each. These often remain at the foot of the cataract without going farther, from the stream being closed below; and as they accumulate, they get progressively piled up, like a Cyclopean wall, built of huge blocks of ice instead of stone. This singular masonry of nature gets cemented by the spray, which, rising in clouds of mist as usual from the foot of the Falls, attaches itself in its upward progress to the icy wall, and soon gets frozen with the rest of the mass, helping to fill up the interstices between the larger blocks of which this architecture is composed. This process, when the winter is severe, goes on for several months, from

December to April; and a gentleman of Buffalo mentioned to us that, four winters ago, a gigantic mound of this description was progressively built up right in front of the American Falls, to a height of about 20 feet *above* the level of the upper stream. The outer front of this icy wall or mound was nearly perpendicular, but the inner front, or that immediately facing the cataract, was an inclined plane, at an angle of from 60 to 70 degrees, the thickness being greatest at the base, and constantly diminishing, and the distance of the mound from the water, as it fell over the cliff, scarcely exceeding 100 feet. Being anxious to ascend to its summit, he procured two labourers of the neighbourhood, with a pickaxe and shovel, by which steps were easily cut on the sloping ascent, when, providing themselves with worsted mittens for the hands, they all succeeded in scaling this icy mound, and stood upon the summit of it, 20 feet above the upper edge of the Falls, and nearly 200 feet in perpendicular height from the ordinary level of the stream below. The mound did not begin to diminish much till May, and did not entirely disappear till June.

This wonder of nature does not appear to have attracted such early attention from voyagers and travellers as might have been expected. The French travellers Champlain and Le Roux visited Lake Ontario, the former in 1604, the latter in 1628, but neither of them make the least mention of these Falls at Niagara. In a work on the Geography of Upper Canada, by Michael Smith, the third edition of which was published at Philadelphia in 1813, the writer says he discovered two dates cut on the rocks near Niagara as early as 1606. Mr. Ingraham, however, the author of the Guide to Niagara, could find none earlier than 1711 or 1712, though those of 1606 may have escaped his search or become obliterated, or the very rock itself on which they were inscribed may have crumbled or broken away. Dr. Banton, in the Philadelphia Medical and Physical Journal of 1798, says that the Falls were delineated by the French artists in 1638, and that their present appearance is just that which they bore then. Their position is inserted on Sanson's Map of Canada, published in 1657, and on Creuxio's map of the same country in 1660, though it is remarkable that in his work "*Historiæ Canadensis*," to which this map is appended, no description of these Falls is given. Father Hennepin, a French ecclesiastic, describes them in 1678, and gives an engraved view of them as they appeared at the same period.

The number of travellers that have since visited this interesting spot has caused villages, towns, and hotels to spring up for their accommodation, and led to their keeping a manuscript register of the names of the visitors, which already fills many volumes. I took the opportunity of inspecting a few of these volumes of the most recent date, and was really surprised to find so large a proportion of the remarks entered opposite the names frivolous and contempt-

ible in the extreme, so much so as to justify the appropriate remark made by one writer, who says, "One has but to look first on the cataract, and then on this register of its visitors, to be satisfied of the truth of the saying, that there is but one step between the sublime and the ridiculous."

The village that has sprung up on the American side of Niagara is called Manchester, because it was hoped by its founders that the great extent of water-power which could here be brought into operation for mills and manufactories would make it the Manchester of the West. This expectation has not yet been realized, however, nor does it appear probable that it ever will. At present there is a large paper-mill on Goat Island, which makes about 10,000 reams of paper annually; and there are some saw-mills, flour-mills, and a hat manufactory on the bank; but the village is very insignificant, and derives all its importance from the visitors to the Falls.

On the Canada side there is at present no town, though a place has been mapped out on paper in the American fashion, called "The City of the Falls;" but not a single house of the projected city has yet been erected. There are three hotels on this side, the Clifton, the Pavilion, and the Ontario. The last is at present occupied as barracks or quarters for the officers of the 43d regiment of the British, the troops being encamped on the heights; and the second is occupied chiefly also by the officers for their mess, so that the Clifton is the only one now much frequented by visitors.

The hotels on both sides, like all those we had stopped at in our journey across from Saratoga to Niagara, are all built on too large a scale for comfort. There are spacious drawing-rooms, vast dining-rooms, ample piazzas, and large bar-rooms and halls; but the bedrooms are all miserably small and ill-furnished; and the provender, though abundant enough in quantity, is worse in quality, badly cooked, carelessly served up, hacked and torn to pieces rather than carved, and handed about by disgustingly dirty waiters. From the great length of the tables and the number of dishes to set on, and from the absence of covers and warm plates, the first dish is always cold before the last is brought on; and the miserable quality and fewness of the vegetables, and the greasy mixtures and messes scattered over the table, are calculated to take away the appetite by their very aspect. Yet the great majority of the guests are evidently satisfied, and appear wholly insensible to the defects mentioned, so effectually does habit reconcile men to all things.

CHAPTER XV.

Excursion to the Tuscarora Settlement.—History of this Tribe of Indians.—Council of the Sachems, Chiefs, and Warriors.—Object of the Meeting.—Women and Children present at the Council.—Description of the mixed Assembly.—Terms proposed to the Indians.—Translation of the English Speech into the Tuscarora Tongue.—Opposition made to the Treaty.—Final Assent of the Chiefs.—Signatures and Ratification by Witnesses.—Statistics of the Tribe in Numbers and Lands.—Mode of Government and State of Property.—Missionary Labours, Religion, and Education.—Difficulty in teaching the Women and Children.—Return to Niagara along the Banks.—Extensive Forests towards Lake Ontario.—Brock's Monument.—Outlet of Niagara.—Description of the Devil's Hole and Whirlpool.—Finest distant View of the Cataract.—Passage of the Ferry after Sunset.—Grandeur of this Night-view of the Cataract.—Last Look at the Falls from Table Rock.—Increased Beauty and Sublimity of the Scene.

DURING one of the days of our stay at Niagara, we were invited by General Gillett and Mr. Allen, two of the commissioners of the United States' Government for Indian affairs, to visit, with them, the settlement of the Tuscarora Indians, at a distance of about seven miles only from the village on the American side of the Falls, as they were going there to hold a council of the sachems, chiefs, and warriors of that nation, to present to them an amended treaty, as approved by the Senate, and awaiting only their ratification. We readily availed ourselves of so favourable an opportunity of seeing Indian life and manners; and, accordingly, left Niagara at noon on Tuesday, the 14th of August, in company with these gentlemen and Mrs. General Gillett, for the spot, in an extra-coach and four, and reached the settlement in little more than an hour.

The Tuscarora Indians were originally a northern tribe, and very powerful; about three centuries ago, and, consequently, long before the visit of any settlers of the white race, they were led by their wars and successes as far south as the Carolinas, but, after remaining there some years, they were driven out by a more powerful enemy from that quarter, and returned to the North again as their original home. Since then they have always lived within the State of New-York, having formed the sixth tribe of that powerful confederacy of Indians called "The Six Nations." In process of time, the State Government and the General Government, acting in concert, prevailed upon them to part with the greatest portion of their lands, but kept for them a certain tract, which is called the "Tuscarora Reservation," induced them to put aside many of their Indian habits, and become agriculturists. They have now followed this mode of life for nearly fifty years; but so slow is the progress of the Indians in acquiring the habits of more civilized people, that they are a full century behind all their surrounding neighbours, both in the condition of their lands, their cattle, their dwellings, and themselves.

Impressed with a belief that the removal of all the Indian tribes to the new lands west of the Mississippi River will be beneficial to the tribes themselves, and place the lands now occupied by them here in the hands of white settlers, who will bring them to a much more productive state of cultivation, the General Government have prevailed on those who remain of the Six Nations settled in the State of New-York to enter into treaties with them for their removal, and they have now almost all acceded to the terms proposed.

The object of the council to be held to-day was to ratify this treaty by the signatures of the chiefs of the Tuscarora nation. The meeting was held in the church, built on the reservation lands for the use of the Indians, over which a Christian missionary presides as minister. The number present did not exceed 100, of whom about 60 were men, and the rest women and children. The men were seated on one side of the church, the women on the other. The costume was a strange mixture of the Indian and European, their garments mostly of the latter, their ornaments mostly of the former. The costume of the women was entirely Indian; and it has been remarked, that while the men willingly adopt the European mode of dress so long as they can retain their Indian belts, feathers, and trinkets, the women cannot be prevailed upon to make the least approach to it, but continue to wear the garments and exhibit the ornaments of their ancestors, without alteration.

The women take no part in the public councils of their Indian husbands generally, but on this occasion General Gillett had requested their attendance in the church, that we might have a good opportunity of seeing them. They brought with them various kinds of work, such as small baskets, reticules, and moccasins or slippers, all of which they ornament with coloured beads, porcupine's quills, and other braiding, and execute this with the needle with great skill and taste. They continued their work without interruption while the business of the council was proceeding; and some, who had their children with them, in little cradle baskets not unlike a violin case, sometimes hung them up at a peg on the wall, or over the backs of the seat next before them, and thus amused them by talking and play when they showed signs of impatience. The women were nearly all stouter or fatter than the men; the complexions of both were very dark; but we did not see a single handsome face among them all, while many were extremely unprepossessing; and the general expression was that of sullenness and imbecility.

The council was opened by General Gillett, announcing to the sachems, chiefs, warriors, and head men of the Tuscaroras that he had been commissioned by their Great Father, the President of the United States, to hold a friendly talk with them on the subject of the treaty lately assented to, which treaty had been ratified by the

Senate, with certain amendments. In its present state, the treaty undertook, on the part of the General Government of the United States, the following duties : to appropriate from the national funds the sum of 400,000 dollars, which was to be thus expended : 1st, in the removal to the territories west of the Mississippi of all the remaining Indians now in the State of New-York ; 2d, in subsisting these Indians for a period of one year after their arrival in their new territory ; 3d, in furnishing them with agricultural implements and farming stock ; 4th, in building for them dwellings, schoolhouses, and churches. It was to be understood that the whole sum of 400,000 dollars was to be thus expended, and no more ; and the proportions to be given to each particular object would depend on the determination of the several councils of the respective tribes, and on the state of the funds, as they were gradually expended.

The objects, however, were to be accomplished in the order in which they were enumerated, so that if much were expended on the first two, little would remain for the others ; and if the first two were accomplished for a comparatively small sum, the more would remain for carrying the others into execution. But in the calculation of General Gillett himself, as submitted to the council, it appeared that the whole sum of 400,000 dollars, large as it seems, would, when it came to be appropriated among all the Indians of the State of New-York, whose removal, subsistence, and outfit it was to accomplish, amount to only 80 dollars for each individual, as the whole number to be removed were about 5000 persons : a small sum to cover the long journey, the year's subsistence, the outfit in farming stock, and the building of dwellings, schools, and churches.

It was added that each man would receive, on reaching his destination, a grant of 300 acres of the government land, free of cost, the clearing of which would, however, be a work of some time, and devolve on himself ; and with respect to the "Tuscarora Reservation," which they were to leave behind them here, the government undertook to sell these lands to the best advantage, invest the proceeds in government stock, and pay over to the tribe the amount of interest thus yielded, in perpetual annuity.

If such a proposition as this were made to a body of European emigrants or to a company of American settlers, it would be the foundation of their future prosperity, and they would soon grow rich upon it ; old lands to be sold and converted into an annuity, new lands to be had for nothing, and 80 dollars per head to be given as capital for the journey, subsistence, and stock, would be advantages which few white settlers enjoy. But to the Indians, whose indolence and incapacity are so deeply rooted and apparently incurable, it is doubtful whether it will do more than just serve to protract a joyless and unimproving existence.

The advantage to the state, however, of removing all the In-

dians west of the Mississippi, and placing the lands at present held by them in the possession of a more energetic and improving race, is undoubted; besides removing a constant cause of dissatisfaction to the surrounding whites, which the drunken habits, loose morals, and ferocious and vindictive propensities of these Indians so constantly occasion, and of which two striking instances were recorded in the papers of the very day on which we visited the Tuscarora settlement. One of these was the murder of several white families by the Indians settled in New-Jersey; and the other was a fatal conflict in one of the frontier states between some few Sioux and Chippewa Indians, in which the conquering party signalized their triumph by roasting and eating one of their captives!

The reading of the propositions contained in the amended treaty having been finished by General Gillett, he invited any one who had objections to make to stand up in the council and state them. There was evidently a strong disposition on the part of several to do this, and some had even been furnished with calculations in figures, showing that the 400,000 dollars would be insufficient to accomplish the objects proposed. But a want of self-possession, or courage to rise and address the assembly publicly, deterred the individuals from so doing; and, therefore, the objectors formed themselves into groups, and discussed the objections among themselves.

Only a few among the whole number present understood English, and these were entirely confined to the men; the women and children spoke only the Tuscarora tongue. Into this tongue the address of General Gillett was translated by an Indian who stood beside him, and who gave the English address in the Tuscarora language, sentence by sentence, as it was pronounced; the interpreter spitting his tobacco fluid on the floor at every pause, so as to leave quite a little pool on the church floor at his feet when the oration was ended. All the Indians, old and young, appeared to chew this offensive weed immoderately; and the smell of the breath of women and men was sufficient to prove that they drank spirits habitually. The sounds of the language were remarkably few, and these harsh, jerked, and guttural. I observed particularly that there were no visible labials, as the translator never closed his lips to touch, not even once, during his whole task; the dentals were few, and the vocals thick, and suppressed in utterance; and the language was apparently so diffuse that many of the shorter sentences took often more than twice the time to convey in Tuscarora that it did to express them in English, while there was neither grace, dignity, nor beauty in the whole or in its parts.

During the course of the discussion among the objecting groups before referred to, one of the Indians was irritated by something that had been said by another, and in an instant his hot blood seemed to be set in violent motion. He accordingly denounced the whole scheme as a flat robbery, abused the United States' Gov-

ernment as the oppressors of the Indians; said his father and his father's fathers had been engaged in treaties before him, and were invariably cheated, as all the Indians had been, out of that which rightly belonged to them; that the Tuscaroras had already once gone by treaty to Green Bay in Michigan, and were forcibly removed from thence; that now they were going west of the Mississippi, and by the time they had got their lands in order there, they would be pushed off by another treaty farther west, till they drove them beyond the Rocky Mountains, and there would be no rest for them but in the grave.

With all this, however, few seemed to sympathize, the greater number listening to him with a vacant laugh, which at once showed their want of feeling as well as of intellect. It ended, however, in all objections being either answered or overruled, so that at length the chiefs consented to sign the amended treaty, though it was said that on the previous day a deputation had arrived from a portion of the Seneca Indians south of Buffalo, declaring that a large portion of that body were averse to the proposed removal, and that they had resolved to murder every man who signed the treaty, as far as they could discover them!

By the courtesy of the general, Mrs. Buckingham, my son, and myself were invited to witness the signatures of the chiefs, who were called up in the order of their seniority and precedence to affix their names to the treaty. The oldest man of the tribe happened to be the principal chief, and was nearly ninety years of age. He was the son of an American father and Indian mother, and had more of the American than of the Indian in his countenance. Such offspring are very common, and as many as one fourth, perhaps, of the assembly present were of this description. But all this mixed race become Indians in their education, associations, and habits, as it is the invariable practice in such cases to leave the children entirely to the mothers; and their unchangeable attachment to Indian manners is such, that they bring up their children as far removed as possible from the influence of the whites.

The venerable old chief signed his name, Nicholas Cusick, and he was followed by about ten or twelve of the others, some of whom could write, and who signed with English or American names, as William Mountpleasant, James Chew, William Jack, and so on; while others, who could not write, made their crosses, as some of the unlettered barons of England were accustomed to do in feudal days. My son and myself attested these signatures as witnesses, and a small sum was then given by the general as a gift from the Great Father, to be expended in tobacco and presents, the greater part of which, we were told, was likely to be spent in rum or whiskey.

In the course of conversation with such of the Indians as could speak English, we learned that the whole number of the Tuscarora

tribe now settled on the reservation was less than 300 persons, though fifty years ago, or about the period of the American Revolution, they could bring 10,000 warriors into the field; so greatly had their numbers diminished. There is no doubt that their contiguity to, and intercourse with, the whites, have materially contributed to this decline in their numbers; first, from the free use of ardent spirits, which the whites first taught them, and have since turned to purposes of unholy gain; secondly, from the appearance among them of many fearfully destructive diseases, previously unknown among their tribe, and to which intemperate drinking and libidinous excesses have no doubt materially contributed. The number of children born in the tribe is less than tradition assigns to families formerly, and the number reared to maturity is very much fewer; instances have been pointed out to us of mothers who had had four, six, and eight children, but had not succeeded in rearing more than one or two.

The whole amount of land held by the Indians on the Tuscarora Reservation is about 5000 acres. This, when first granted to them, belonged to the whole tribe as a community; but the rule settled by the grand council of the nation was, that whoever should enclose and cultivate any given portion, should, after a certain number of years' cultivation, have that as his individual property, as matter of private right. The greater part has been so enclosed and cultivated; but such is the different degrees of skill, industry, and prudence, even among Indians, that, while some of them have tolerably extensive farms, though very poorly cultivated, others have hardly an acre they can call their own, and live very miserably, from their own indolence or imprudence.

The nation, for so all the Indian tribes call themselves, small as it is, has a sort of aristocratic rather than republican government. This aristocracy consists of what are called sachems, chiefs, warriors, and head men of the tribe. These, at least, are the nominal ranks of the leaders; and in the larger tribes of the West, who retain all their original manners, these ranks really exist; but among the Tuscaroras and other tribes settled in the State of New-York, there are no warriors, and chiefs are the only persons usually spoken of. These are neither hereditary nor elected by the people, but a standing body, in which the vacancies that occur by death are filled up by the decision of the remaining members of the class. In general, a certain age, and the possession of some qualities to recommend the individual to the dignity, are demanded, but not always; for an instance was related to us in which, at the request of a dying chief, a youth of 12 years old, of which he was remarkably fond, was made a chief to supply his place, and regularly took his seat, and gave his voice in all the national councils. The appointment, whenever made, is for life, and against the decision of the council of chiefs there is no appeal.

Attached to the tribe of the Tuscaroras was the church in which the council was held, a neat little building, capable of containing about 200 persons, and a small schoolhouse for the education of the children. These were superintended by an American missionary from New-England, appointed and paid by the American Home Missionary Society. As we had taken nothing since our breakfast at eight o'clock, and the council had lasted till sunset, we repaired, by invitation, to the missionary's humble dwelling, to take a cup of tea, and were very cheerfully and hospitably supplied. In our way to his house we passed a large party of the Indians, who, not being chiefs, had taken no part in the affairs of the council, but were engaged in their favourite game of ball, in which they evinced great energy and dexterity.

We learned from the missionary that there was no great objection among the Indians to consent to the nominal profession of Christianity, but that there was great difficulty in getting them to understand its doctrines, and still more to practise its precepts, though some few among their number, among whom was the venerable chief, Nicholas Cusik, were decidedly good Christians and pious men. The women, retaining more of Indian manners and Indian superstitions, were more inaccessible to religion than the men; and the great difficulty, both with them and the children, arose from their not knowing the English language, and from its being almost impossible to teach it to them; for, though they received their regular lessons in the school, yet, as they invariably talked only the Tuscarora language when they went home to their mothers, they made no progress whatever in acquiring or speaking English.

It was near sunset when we left the settlement to return home; but, as we had four good horses and a careful driver, we made good progress. On our return-route we enjoyed some of the finest views, for extent and beauty, that could well be conceived. Beyond us, to the north, in the direction of Lake Ontario, was a perfect sea of wood, in an immense level forest, which extended 40 or 50 miles in length and 20 or 30 in breadth, the tops of the trees forming so complete a level, yet so dense a mass, that it was like an impenetrable jungle; the blue line of the surface of Lake Ontario forming the distant horizon. As we approached the banks of the Niagara Strait, and came along its western edge towards the Falls, we had commanding and beautiful views of this romantic stream. Looking downward towards Lake Ontario, the positions of Queens-ton on the British, and Lewiston on the American side, were apparent, with the romantic windings of the Niagara, and the capes and curves by which it passes till its final issue into the lake.

Immediately opposite to us, on the Canada Heights, was the lofty pillar erected as a monument to the memory of General Sir Isaac Brock, the brother of my venerable and esteemed friend, Daniel de Lisle Brock, the present bailiff or chief magistrate of the

Island of Guernsey, and of Mr. Irving Brock, the accomplished translator of Bernier's Travels in India, who died recently at Bath. The monument which is erected over the remains of the general, near the spot where he received his mortal wound, when defending the post against an attack of the Americans on the 13th of October, 1812, is a white column of 126 feet in height, erected on a hill 270 feet above the level of the Niagara stream below it, so that it is seen conspicuously from all parts of the surrounding country.

A little beyond this, to the south, and close to the high road, the coach-wheels running within a few feet of its very edge, is a deep rent or chasm in the eastern bank of the Niagara, caused by some convulsion of nature, and called "The Devil's Hole." A fearful narrative, too, is connected with this spot, which, while you hear it told, as we did, on the very brink of the precipice itself, makes the place and all its associations only the more terrible. It appears that, during the French war, a detachment of the British army were retreating from Schlosser, on the American side, farther down towards the Lake Ontario, where they were pursued by the French and their Indian allies; and these attacking them at this spot, and having a great superiority of force, drove all the British—men, women, and children, officers, horses, wagons, baggage, and all—over this precipitous cliff, leaving no hope of escape for a single being of all the number, as those who were not dashed to pieces in their fall were carried off by the impetuous torrent and drowned. Such are the relentless cruelties of barbarous and savage war, even when practised by nations priding themselves on their Christianity, civilization, and humanity. Oh, when will the world outgrow this madness or repent this folly, and determine to sheath the sword forever, and decide all national questions of dispute by regularly organized tribunals and a code of international law! No nation, indeed, ought to be considered as truly Christian or humane that has not done its utmost to bring about a consummation so devoutly to be wished.

Still farther on, at the distance of about a mile to the south of this, is a singularly turbulent rapid of the Niagara, called "The Whirlpool." The appearance of this spot is very striking. The strait is so narrow here, and the banks so precipitous and lofty, that the stream appears to be compressed into a narrow current of not more than one hundred yards in breadth; and one is astonished to find that all the drainage of the great upper lakes, in the millions of tons of water precipitated every hour over the Falls of Niagara, should be thus pent up within such narrow bounds; a consideration which impressed me more and more with the belief that there exist deep cavernous hollows at the foot of the Falls, through which a large portion of the waters find their way, by subterranean channels, to the lower lake, and thus lessen the subsequent bulk and subsequent agitation of the stream below. This very

"whirlpool," indeed, appears to be formed by one of such cavernous hollows in the bed of the stream ; for, on the waters reaching it, they are whirled round in circular eddies, and boil up with foam like a caldron, the waters of the centre being elevated several feet above the level of the edge ; and trees and other large substances that are drawn into it in their passage down the stream, are whirled around with the circular motion of the water till they often stand on end, or upright, the upper portion half out of the water, and the lower perpendicularly beneath it, till, on a sudden, the whole mass will disappear and never more be seen, being either ingulfed in the cavernous hollow supposed, and carried thence by subterranean channels to the lake or sea, or else kept below by the pressure of the current till it rises at some distance lower down.

It is but a short distance from this that one of the finest views of the great cataract occurs, at a point about four miles from the Falls. For a first view, indeed, of this sublime picture, I should say this was the most desirable spot to see it from. The rising clouds of spray, which in a clear day can be seen at a distance of fifty miles from the place of their ascent, in opposite directions, so that persons one hundred miles from each other might yet each see the spray of Niagara at the same time, are here beheld ascending, like clouds of white smoke or incense from some great sacrifice on the altar of Nature below ; the sounds are also distinctly heard, neither like thunder, nor like the ocean, nor like the winds, but a deep diapason, that falls softly at this distance on the ear, though still, in the contemplation of that distance, giving the idea of a majestic sound.

Except that this is more steady and more continuous, it resembles most the approach of a vast multitude, whom you can hear but not see. It reminded me strongly of two beautiful expressions : the one of Homer, "the many-sounding sea," and the other of the book of Revelations, "the sound of many waters ;" the even and musical smoothness of the murmurs produced by placing a large conch-shell to the ear, and pressing it closely, is the nearest approach to it in its nature, though far inferior to it in degree. It is, in short, unique ; and the clouds of mysterious incense, and the noise of the yet unseen torrent, falling upon the eye and ear at once, well prepare the spectator for the sight that suddenly bursts upon his enchanted view, when, after a few steps of elevation, he sees the whole sweep of the mighty cataract spread before him at once. For myself, I enjoyed this view intensely, even after having seen the Falls in all their details before. But I can imagine nothing finer than taking this as a first view, and then examining the object more closely afterward.

As it was growing late, we could not afford to halt so long as I wished to enjoy this scene to the full ; and though we hastened on

with all practicable speed, having to cross the ferry to the Canada side to sleep, we learned to our deep regret, on reaching the ferry-bank, that the hour was past at which boats were allowed to pass over, and that no boat could put off from this side to take us across, without being seized for breach of orders. It was in vain to urge anything in reply to this, and we were on the point of giving up the matter in despair, when suddenly my eye caught the sight of a boat just approaching this side from the other, though, in the darkness which now reigned, but just barely visible.

We hastened down the long flight of steps, therefore, with the utmost rapidity that the faint light would allow, and got to the foot of the rocks just at the instant that the boat was about to push off for the other side. The ferryman was as much surprised at his unexpected fare as we were delighted at our unexpected good fortune, and we enjoyed the passage across exceedingly, notwithstanding the turbulent agitation of the waters and the darkness of the night, as it gave us new views of the mighty cataract, which, amid the dimness of all surrounding objects, seemed to come out with a greater prominence of grandeur than ever, and to look more imposing and more sublime from the loneliness in which it was beheld. We reached the opposite shore in safety, after a day of great interest and pleasure.

On the following morning, August 16, we went to take a last look of the Falls before quitting them perhaps forever, and we all agreed that our sensations at the last view were as powerful as at the first. For my own part, I do not think it would be possible for any number of repetitions in the view to take away, or even abate, the first impression produced by the richness, splendour, magnificence, and sublimity of this great and glorious object of nature. To the many who visit this spot without a taste for the grand or beautiful—and to the extent of their numbers the register at the Table Rock produces painful evidence—I can understand its becoming tiresome; but to those whose feelings harmonize with the sublime objects that are here combined and presented to the wondering view, I cannot comprehend how they should be otherwise than enchanted from first to last, and impressed with all the sensations of pleasure, admiration, triumph, and devotion in succession.

The sunlights were more varied to-day than we had observed them to be on any preceding visit, and this is a powerful cause of variety in the appearance of the Falls. There were passing clouds that occasionally obscured the sun, when deep shadows overhung the waters. Suddenly the bright orb would burst forth from his hiding-place, and in an instant the whole mass was lighted up with luminous and transparent brilliancy. Occasional showers of rain also fell, and the rainbows of the spray seemed to look more than usually vivid and glowing. The smooth deep current between the

turbulent rapids of the upper strait and the immediate edge of the cataract flowed on like a stream of molten glass, so clear, so lucid, and yet so unwrinkled in its surface, that when it curved over the brink of the precipice, the mass poured downward was like a liquid emerald of the brightest and most transparent green. As this was varied with the sparkling lights of the broken waters, it resembled those beautiful glimpses which the mariner sometimes catches of the mountain-wave at sea, when the lustre of the setting sun is seen through its upper edge of the brightest green, and a curling wave of the whitest foam crowns its towering and majestic crest. The whole seemed to realize the splendid imagery of Milton, in his exquisite description of the

"Throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus or of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric pearls and gold."

As we retired from the scene, we could not repress the expression of our surprise that any persons of the least susceptibility to the impressions created by the grand and the beautiful should experience disappointment at seeing the Falls of Niagara. Certain it is, that if these did not excite their admiration, no other object in Nature would be likely to do so; for none that I have seen, in all my various wanderings, equal this in magnificence and sublimity. The impression of its beauty and grandeur is so deeply imprinted on my heart and mind, that I am sure I shall carry it with me to the grave, if reason and memory are spared to me till then; and my own delight, intense and glowing as it was during every moment that I gazed upon its endless variety of attractions, was rendered still more exquisite from the kindred sympathy of the beloved companions of my journey, who felt all that I felt, enjoyed all that I enjoyed, and thus doubled by reciprocation the pleasures of each.

CHAPTER XVI.

Leave Niagara for the Village of Chippewa.—Embark in the Steamboat for Buffalo.—Passage by Schlosser.—Wreck of the Caroline.—Difficulty of Ships going over the Falls.—Descent of an Indian over the Cataract.—Passage by Navy Island.—Canadian Rebellion.—Escaped Prisoner one of our Passengers.—Landing at Whitehaven on Grand Island.—Splendid Forests of Oak and other Timber.—Saw-mills and Frames of Ships here.—Proposed City of Refuge to be built here for the Jews.—Monument of Major Noah recording this Project.—Passage along the Canada Shore.—Waterloo and Fort Erie.—Second Arrival in the Harbour of Buffalo.

It was an hour past noon when we left Clinton House for the village of Chippewa, where we were to embark in the steamer for Buffalo. On our way we passed through the British encampment on the heights, and reached Chippewa, on the Canada side, about

two o'clock. The village is small and insignificant, though pleasantly situated on a little inlet of the Niagara strait, about two miles above the edge of the Falls. Close by it is the celebrated battleground which, on the 5th of July, 1814, was the scene of a most sanguinary contest between the British and the Americans, with Indian auxiliaries on either side, in which the British, though occupying their own territory, and attacked by the Americans crossing from the other side, were beaten and obliged to retreat, having lost 514 men, while the loss of the Americans was 328.

We started from this village about half past two o'clock, in a small steamboat called "the Red Jacket," the name of the celebrated Indian chief who died at Buffalo only a few years since. This boat, though upward of 100 tons, had an engine of only twenty-five horse power; and when she first stood out of the Chipewewa inlet on the Niagara stream, her powers were so feeble that she began sensibly to drop down by the current towards the Falls, distant about two miles astern of us, with the curling clouds of mist ascending from their deep abyss. A stranger might well be forgiven for feeling a little anxious at such a moment, till the boat recovered way enough to make some visible progress upward by the land. This was soon effected by her creeping close in to the shore, though even then her rate of progress, owing to the strength of the current and her deficiency of power, was very slow indeed.

After a short distance we crossed over to Schlosser, a small landing-place on the American side where passengers embark. This place has obtained some celebrity from the cutting out of the *Caroline* steamer, which was moored at this place. She was an American vessel, and was in an American port; but, being alleged to be in the service of the Canadian insurgents at Navy Island during the late rebellion, she was cut out by a British officer, Captain Drew, and his followers, then set on fire, and left to drift over the Falls. This act excited great indignation throughout America at the time of its happening; and it was certainly unnecessary, as she could as well have been taken on the British side. But the excitement on this subject had greatly subsided, when a most ungenerous attempt to revive the feeling which this act engendered was made by a person signing himself "A British Officer," in the register-book kept at the Table Rock at Niagara, where the entry in its pages is in substance this: "The Americans proudly boast of their having been the first to apply steam-power to the navigation of rivers, but the British were the first to teach the Americans how to navigate the Falls:" alluding to this setting fire to the *Caroline*, and sending her over the cataract. The vindictiveness of spirit which could make this questionable act a subject of national triumph, was far from being honourable to the individual whose pen could place such a sentiment on record, especially where it was sure to excite feelings of the most hostile nature.

Respecting the descent of this vessel over the Falls, as well as of another that was once purchased for the purpose when unfit for anything else, and sent to float down the cataracts with some few brute animals and large birds on board, we heard from those residing on the spot that neither of them went over the Falls whole. This, indeed, might have been easily predicted by any one conversant with the locality, because, long before a ship or a boat of any size could reach the edge of the cataract, she would run aground upon the rocks, which present a complete barrier across the stream, and would be knocked to pieces among the rapids; so that only her fragments would be sent piecemeal over the Falls, and many of these even would be entangled in the rocks and among the islands for months before they would be floated over.

The story seems to be well authenticated of an Indian in a state of intoxication having quarrelled with his squaw, when in her anger she got out of the canoe in which they both were, and, pushing him into the middle of the stream, with his face towards the rapids, got herself safe to shore. The Indian, finding himself approaching the cataract without the possibility of escape, seized the bottle of rum or whiskey, in which some of the intoxicating liquor still remained, and, lifting it with both hands to his mouth, was seen to be precipitated over the great Fall in this attitude and condition. The crime and misery which the whites have introduced among the Indians with this fatal poison, sold to them for gain, is greater than a century of future kindness, instruction, and protection would suffice to recompense or atone for, and it is impossible now to wipe it away.

From Schlosser we passed by Navy Island, the only one of the islands in the Niagara strait that belongs to the British. It derives its name from having been the place where the ships of war, intended for the service of the upper lakes, were built by the British during their last contest with America. It is an insignificant spot in size, having only 300 acres of surface, and no remarkable features, but has been brought of late into great notoriety by having been the retreat of the Canadian insurgents, who there concentrated themselves to the number of about 500, under Mr. W. L. Mackenzie and Mr. Van Renselaer, as their leaders.

How any persons in possession of their right senses could imagine that such a spot as this could be held for any length of time in opposition to the forces of Canada, or make a place of safe refuge even for those who wished to escape from its power, is astonishing.

From the testimony of all parties here, as far as I could gather it, and I spoke with as many who were favourable to the rebellion and wished it success, as with those who were not, there were never collected together in any one spot such a set of abandoned and contemptible persons as those constituting what were called the patriot forces.

We had on board the steamboat, as a passenger from Schlosser, one of the Canadian rebels, who had been sentenced to be hung, and had recently escaped from prison at Toronto, with fourteen others, two of whom only had been recaptured, Parker and Watson, and reloaded with additional chains. He himself admitted that the leaders were wholly incompetent, and the followers mostly idle, dissolute, and abandoned men; the greater number being persons out of employ from Buffalo, Rochester, and the American side, who flocked to Navy Island in hopes of subsistence and plunder, many of them emigrants, and some native Americans. At the same time, the general belief seemed to be, that if the insurrection had been commenced by leaders in whom the people had confidence, and, above all, if success had attended their first efforts and given victory to their arms, a much larger portion of the Canadian population would have joined their standard, to enforce a change in their institutions if they could.

After passing Navy Island we approached the larger island, called by the Indians Owanungah, or Grand Island. This is about ten miles in length and about seven miles in breadth, being an irregular oval in its shape, dividing the Niagara stream into two branches, of which the easternmost is the broadest and deepest, and, consequently, the one generally navigated, there being from three to five fathoms of water in it throughout. This island contains nearly eighteen thousand acres of land, of the first quality as to fertility, though now covered with forests of wood.

It was originally purchased of the Indians who inhabited it for a trifling sum, but it is now the property chiefly of a company of wealthy men at Boston, who bought it for its timber; and some few individuals residing in Buffalo and elsewhere have portions of it also. The price asked for land upon it now is from twenty to thirty dollars per acre, though no part of it, I believe, is yet cultivated. The finest trees growing upon it are chiefly white oak, hickory, basswood, black walnut, whitewood, ash, elm, sugar-maple, and beech.

The Boston company have recently erected saw-mills at a point on the east side of the island, nearly opposite the Erie Canal, which they have called Whitehaven, and where we landed while the steamboat was taking in wood for her fires. We saw several large oak-trees under the process of being sawed into planks of from two to five inches in thickness. The machinery was worked by steam, and one set of saws, all acting together so as to divide the tree into as many planks as might be thought proper, would effect as much in the same space of time as thirty men using saws in pairs. Some of these trees were five feet in diameter; and instances had occurred of some exceeding six feet, or eighteen feet in girth.

These are the trees of the primeval forest where no wood has

ever been cut down before, and which trees are no doubt the growth of centuries. In the recesses of these thick forests are found, even now, deer in abundance, as well as other game; and the larger birds, such as pheasants, quails, partridges, and pigeons, abound, as well as fish in great variety. When the first-growth wood is all cleared away, the island will no doubt be cultivated; and it is more than probable that before the commencement of the next century several large cities may occupy its banks, its position being extremely favourable for that purpose, and its fertility sufficient to sustain a large population.

From the Whitehaven timber-yard there have been already sent to Boston, besides the oak plank going off almost every day, three complete ships, which were cut out in frame here, including all the necessary timbers and planking; and these, being conveyed by the Erie Canal to Albany, thence to New-York by the Hudson, and thence to Boston by sea, were put together at the ship-yards of Boston in perfect vessels, one of which was sent to South America, one to the Mediterranean, and one to India.

It was on this island that Major Noah, the present editor of the New-York Evening Star, and author of a work endeavouring to establish the descent of the Indian race from the lost tribes of the house of Israel, proposed to build a city, to be called "Ararat," for the purpose of collecting together all the Jews, now scattered over the world, into one spot, and fixing on this as their permanent home and abode till the coming of their expected Messiah. The plan, however, was not sufficiently popular among the Jews themselves to receive their approbation, and it accordingly fell to the ground; but the major, himself a Jew, has thought the project of sufficient importance to deserve a permanent record; and accordingly, at this station of Whitehaven, where the city was intended to be built, a monument has been erected, with an inscription in Hebrew, for the information of all succeeding generations.

After completing our supply of wood, we passed beyond Grand Island, keeping close to the Canada shore, passing the small villages of Waterloo and Fort Erie, with British sentinels at each, till, coming opposite to the lighthouse of Buffalo harbour, we stood across for the American shore, and, arriving at the wharf about seven o'clock, having been about five hours in performing 22 miles against a current running nearly six miles an hour, we went to our former quarters at the American Hotel, and were delighted with the change which its ample and well-furnished apartments, good beds, and other agreeable auxiliaries afforded us, in contrast to those with which we had so recently been familiar.

I omitted to mention that the captain of the Red Jacket steam-boat, in which we came from Niagara to Buffalo, introduced himself to me as an old acquaintance in Calcutta in the year 1822, now 16 years ago. He said he was struck with my name, as en-

tered on the waybill of the passengers by the coach to his vessel; and he examined my person with some attention, by which he was confirmed in his belief of my being the same individual he had known in Bengal. But it was not until I had spoken that his recognition of my identity was complete, as he remembered the tones of my voice more distinctly than anything else, and, without seeing my face, he said he should have recognised me by those sounds in another room or in a crowd. The memories of men are no doubt differently quickened by different things, as some remember names, some countenances, and some figures best; but it was the first time that I ever remember to have been recognised solely by the tones of my voice.

This worthy captain and myself had met in Calcutta at the table of Mr. John Palmer, the prince of merchants, as he was so justly called. Captain Chase, for that was his name, then commanded a large ship in the trade from Boston to India, and, having been successful, he repeated his voyages afterward. He was familiar with all the history of my banishment from India for upholding and maintaining the liberty of the press in that country. He related to me many pleasing anecdotes of the expression of sympathy in my case by all classes in India after I had left it; and he had followed the history of my progress in England in opposing the renewal of the East India monopoly since, and rejoiced in its ultimate overthrow.

We talked a great deal, also, about our mutual friend, Ram Mohun Roy, the celebrated Brahmin, who died in England, but who was then in Calcutta, and at whose house we had both shared the Brahmin's hospitality, and enjoyed his ever-interesting and instructive conversation. In short, we talked till we seemed to be living our Calcutta lives over again; and I believe that this occupation was mutually agreeable: to me, indeed, it was delightful, as I can remember no period of my life abounding in more pleasing recollections than that passed in India, notwithstanding all the persecutions of the government there; and, as the reminiscences of that period are always welcome to me, I rejoice at every opportunity of reviving and indulging them.

The captain accounted to me for being in his present position by saying that, having now, from age, done with the salt water, and not being able to live without some occupation, he had taken to these gentle trips upon the Niagara, by which he found his health preserved, his mind occupied, and his means replenished.

CHAPTER XVII.

Stay in the City of Buffalo.—Sketch of its History.—Destruction by the British.—Subsequent grant of Congress to repair its Losses.—Revival and rebuilding.—Rapid Progress from thence.—Statistics of its Commerce.—Financial Report to the State Legislature.—Prospects of future Greatness.—Advantageous and agreeable Situation of Buffalo.—The Welland Canal from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario.—Description of Buffalo, its Buildings and Population.—Projected Public Buildings, University and Exchange.—Environs, Rides, Villas, Prospects, Climate.—Steamboats, Schooners, Brigs, and Ships.—Source of the great River St. Lawrence.—Size, Depth, and Elevation of the Lakes.—Lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, Ontario.—Public Meeting of the Bethel Society of Buffalo.—American Picture of the maritime Population.

WE remained ten days at Buffalo, during which I had an opportunity of being introduced to most of the leading merchants and principal inhabitants of the place, and of attending one public meeting for a benevolent object, and taking part in the proceedings of it; of enjoying the private hospitalities of the citizens in some agreeable evening parties, and of visiting all the remarkable places within and around the city, so as to make my acquaintance with it tolerably complete. From what I saw myself, therefore, and what I learned of others, the following history and description of the place has been compiled.

Previous to the year 1814 Buffalo was a small village, surrounded by thick forests; and from about 1800, the period of its first settlement by any white inhabitant, its progress had been so slow that there were not more than 200 dwellings in it, and these all small, and tenanted by very humble dwellers. In this year it was set fire to by the British, then at war with the United States, in retaliation, it is said, for a similar act of destruction first committed on some Canadian village on the Niagara strait by the Americans.

The conflagration was so effective, however, that only one house escaped destruction, and this, it is asserted, was spared at the earnest entreaty of a widow to whom it belonged, and who was bold enough to make her way to the commanding officer of the detachment, and personally to secure his order to exempt her house from the general devastation. The population fled into the wood for safety, and some time elapsed before they were reassembled again. At the termination of the war the sum of 80,000 dollars was appropriated by Congress to repair the injury sustained; and this giving a new motive to exertion on the part of the few inhabitants then remaining, they put forth their efforts to rebuild their town.

Up to the year 1825, however, there were not more than 2000 inhabitants in Buffalo. But from this period it began rapidly to increase. The completion of the Erie Canal opening the navigation between the Atlantic and the lakes, the transfer of the ship-

ping from the adjoining village of Black Rock, and the liberal appropriation of the General Government for the erection of a light-house and pier in 1827, materially assisted its prosperity. In 1829 a branch of the United States Bank was established here, to which other banks soon followed. In 1831 an act of the State Legislature conferred on the town the dignity of an incorporated city; and the village of 2000 inhabitants in 1825 has become, in 1838, a city of 20,000 inhabitants at least.

The estimated amount of business transacted here, as compared with what was done ten years ago, makes the increase in that period 5000 per cent. The tonnage in sailing vessels and steam-boats in 1830 was 1950 tons. Last year it was 10,361 tons, being an increase of 430 per cent. in seven years. In 1832 the wheat passing through the port was 100,000 bushels. In 1837 it was 450,000 bushels, being an increase of 350 per cent. In 1832 the flour passing through Buffalo was 22,000 barrels. In 1837 it was 127,000 barrels, being an increase of 600 per cent. But the increase since the last year has been even still more remarkable. The canal tolls on the Erie Canal have, for the first half of 1838 up to the 1st of August, already exceeded the whole receipts of the previous year by 50,000 dollars; the wheat trade has increased from 265,000 to 463,000 bushels, and the flour trade from 41,000 to 154,000 barrels in the same or corresponding periods of time, being an increase of 163 per cent. in the exports of a single half year only. The following passages from the last Financial Report of the Legislature of this State are full of deeply-interesting and important matter illustrative of this subject:

"The steady progress of population and wealth of that portion of our state which is tributary to the canal needs little remark. Whether, owing to the growth of the country on its immediate borders, or to the influence of the lateral canals in swelling its commerce, the tables of tonnage exhibit a rate of increase which will probably be maintained for many years. Although the contribution thus furnished by this state to the revenues of the canal at the present time is large (for two thirds of the whole of its tolls are now drawn from the trade of our own people), yet the amount becomes relatively unimportant when compared with the enormous results we are hereafter to derive from our commerce with the West. Let us advert briefly to the present extent and future progress of that commerce, and the probable effect which it is hereafter to produce upon our fiscal affairs.

"The western termination of the Erie Canal looks out upon Lake Erie, the most southerly and central of that great chain of navigable lakes, which stretches far into the interior from our western boundary. Around these inland seas a cluster of five great states is rapidly rising. The territory which they comprise, and which is to become tributary to the canal, embraces that great area, extending from the lakes on the north to the Ohio on the south, and from the western confines of this state to the Upper Mississippi, containing 280,000 square miles. To measure its extent by well-known objects, it is fifteen times as large as that portion of the state of New-York, west of the county of Oneida, nearly twice as large as the kingdom of France, and about six times as

extensive as the whole of England. It contains 180,000,000 acres of arable land, a large portion of which is of surpassing fertility.

"In the brief period of twenty-one years, such has been the influx of population into this great district, that Ohio, the eldest member in this brotherhood of nations, now numbers 1,400,000 inhabitants, Indiana upward of 600,000, Illinois and Michigan (both of whom have organized their governments and come into the Union), 700,000; while west of Lake Michigan, not only is Wisconsin rapidly rising, but even beyond the Upper Mississippi, 30,000 citizens have already laid the foundations of yet another state. Such is the onward march of this population, that the amount of its annual increase alone exceeds in number the white inhabitants of ten of the states in the Union. The population already embraced within the district in question falls short of three millions, and if the same rate of progress shall be maintained for the twelve years next to come, by 1850 it will exceed six millions.

"This group of inland states has two outlets for its trade to the ocean; one by the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, the other through Lake Erie and the navigable communications of this state to the Atlantic. Whether it be attributable to similarity of origin, or laws, or habits, or to ties of consanguinity, or superior salubrity of climate, their people evidently prefer the market in the Atlantic, and they are making prodigious efforts to reach it. Three great canals (one of them longer than the Erie Canal), embracing in their aggregate length about one thousand miles, are to connect the Ohio with Lake Erie, while another deep and capacious channel, excavated for nearly thirty miles through solid rock, unites Lake Michigan with the navigable waters of the Illinois. In addition to these broad avenues of trade, they are also constructing lines of railroads, not less than 1500 miles in extent, in order to reach, with more ease and speed, the lakes through which they seek a conveyance to a seaboard. The undaunted resolution of this energetic race of men is strikingly evinced by the fact that the cost of the works which they have thus undertaken (and most of which are in actual progress) will exceed forty-eight millions of dollars; a sum far exceeding all that New-York, with two millions of inhabitants and two hundred years of accumulated wealth, has ever attempted. The circumstance, moreover, is particularly important, that the public works of each of these great communities are arranged on a harmonious plan, each having a main line supported and enriched by lateral and tributary branches, thereby bringing the industry of their whole people into prompt and profitable action, while the systems themselves are again united on a grander scale, in a series of systems comprising an aggregate length of more than 2500 miles, with Lake Erie as its common centre.

"It is estimated that the agricultural products which annually descend the Mississippi and its tributaries have already reached 70,000,000 dollars. The value of the property transported on the canals of the State of New-York during the year 1836, is shown by official tables to be 67,000,000 dollars. Of that amount it may be estimated that 50,000,000 dollars consisted of property belonging exclusively to a portion of the population of this state not exceeding a million and a half in number, being at the rate of 33 dollars 33 cents for each inhabitant; and the amount which they paid for its transportation exceeded two millions of dollars. If the same scale of production and consumption shall be assumed for the population in the district in question (and no reason is perceived why it should not be), the six millions of inhabitants in the West who will resort to the Erie Canal for the means of conveyance, will furnish tonnage, in exports and imports, of at least 200,000,000 of

dollars in value. The experience of other nations will show that this amount is not over estimated. The food produced in England alone in the year 1835, by an agricultural population of about eight millions, was valued by their political economists at 604,000,000 dollars; and that of France was ascertained by its minister of finance to be 5,237,000,000 francs, or 980,000,000 dollars.

"But there are peculiar reasons why the proportion of agricultural exports of this great inland population should far exceed that of other nations. The exuberance of their soil, the salubrity of their climate, and the cheapness of their lands (arising from the vast supply within their limits) will enable them always to furnish food to every other portion of the Continent on more advantageous terms than it can be elsewhere produced. Labour there reaps its best reward, and harvests of a hundred fold repay its exertions; and such will always be the superior productiveness of this region, that when the great series of public works shall be completed, and a bushel of wheat on the plains of Indiana shall be brought within a few cents in price of a bushel in New-England, its production in New-England must cease. The same cause will probably operate to change the culture of portions even of our own state; for the unequalled fertility of the West will always enable it to supply those products requiring richness of soil with a less amount of labour, and consequently at a cheaper rate, than they can be produced within our own borders.

"We know that the western part of our own state is increasing in numbers with considerable rapidity, and yet that it furnishes an export of at least 20,000,000 dollars in value. The states of the West around the lakes by the year 1845 will probably hold the same relative position in respect to the whole of the Erie Canal, which the counties of New-York west of the Seneca Lake now bear to that part of the line east of Utica. Our trade will then be measured, not by counties, but by sovereign states, themselves containing their fifty counties; and our revenues, then no longer dependant on the villages and townships scattered along the borders of the canal, will be drawn from the wide-spread and populous communities inhabiting the broad expanse between the Ohio and the lakes."

It is impossible to read these accounts of the immense resources for the production of food which the United States of America contains, and which a journey across the State of New-York alone is sufficient to verify, without lamenting the first imposition of any prohibitory laws against the freest intercourse between this country and Great Britain in the interchange of their respective productions. The first effect of our refusing to receive American grain free of all duty has been to induce the Americans to prohibit our manufactures by a high tariff, and to set up manufactories for themselves; and the next effect has been to keep up the price of food at so high a rate in England as to put it out of the power of millions of our population to obtain sufficient for their full and proper nutriment. We thus do each other mutual injury without the slightest countervailing good. If we would permit a free trade in grain, the Americans would take from us more than double the amount of manufactures that they now consume, paying us in wheat and flour, and would never think of becoming our rivals as manufacturers. But because we will not take their products in payment, therefore

they not only will not buy of us, but they set up as our rivals or opponents; and, from their abundant food, they will in a short time produce goods at rates sufficiently cheap to meet us in foreign markets, while every year will increase our difficulties and lessen theirs, till they pass us in the race, and leave us unable to overtake them.

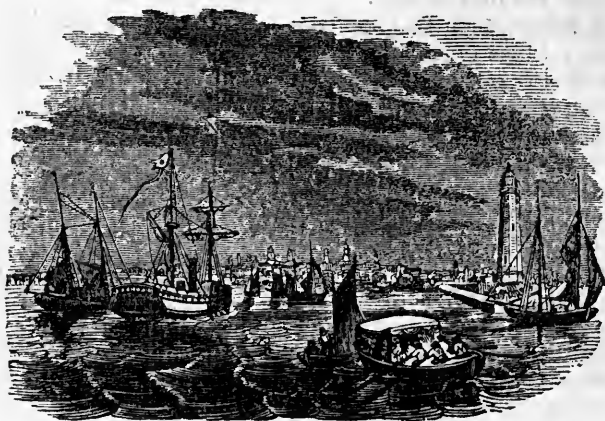
The most melancholy feature of this question, however, is this: that by our free admission of cotton and other Southern products of America, we really uphold the system of slavery under which these articles are produced; while, by refusing the same free admission to the grain of the North, we force them to become manufacturers, and thus, in a double sense, take the bread out of the mouths of our own citizens.

It is, indeed, high time that this evil were corrected. There is perhaps yet time to amend it now, but if left for a few years longer it will be too late; and those influential and powerful classes in England, who now vainly imagine that they are protecting their own incomes from land by this fatal policy, will be among the first to lament that they did not take warning before the labouring classes of the country were reduced to a state of want, of which the wealthiest among the landholders will then feel the burden.

Of all the daily-extending commerce already described, Buffalo may be said to be the chief point and centre in the West, as she is to the navigation of the Lakes what New-York is to the navigation of the Atlantic, and New-Orleans to the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico, namely, the port of entry and departure, the place of deposit for sale, forwarding, and commission; she cannot fail, therefore, to increase in size, population, and wealth with every succeeding year. The water-power for flour-mills is here capable of being made a source of employment to 10,000 persons at least. The manufacture of steam-engines for the Western lakes could not have a better locality, as the pig-iron of Ohio and Pennsylvania is brought speedily and cheaply by water-carriage to the spot; and new discoveries of beds of the finest coal, within thirty miles of the port, in the State of New-York, will furnish the fuel required.

The building of boats and ships for the canal and the lakes, with the noble timbers of Grand Island supplied from Whitehaven, could be effected here cheaper and better than anywhere else, and all the various trades connected with shipping and commerce, such as smiths, coopers, &c., would furnish employment for 50,000 men more. With the constantly-increasing facilities of intercourse, which bring Buffalo within thirty-six hours' distance of New-York on the one hand, about the same distance of Detroit on the other, with all the vast range of country fringing the great upper lakes, and bordering the Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri, all accessible in a few days, there would seem to be no bounds to the extent of the great commercial operations of which this internal maritime emporium may become the chief centre.

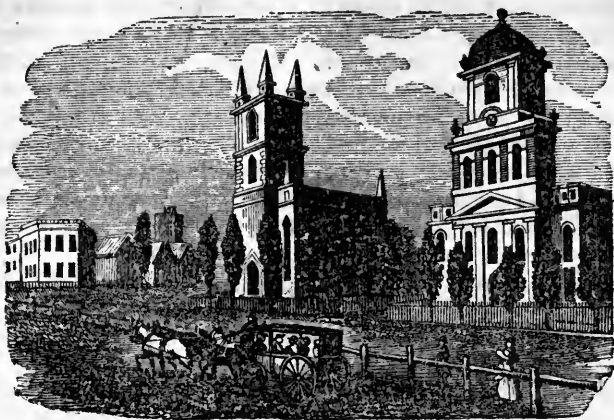
The situation of Buffalo is pleasing as well as advantageous. It is at the northeastern extremity of Lake Erie, and just at the entrance of the strait which carries the waters down over the Niagara Falls into Lake Ontario. Of course, this communication between the two lakes is wholly unnavigable; but the Welland Canal, which runs from Port Maitland, at the mouth of Grand River on Lake Erie, to Newark on Lake Ontario, a distance of forty-four miles, furnishes a navigable channel for vessels of 125 tons burden between these two inland seas. This canal has 334 feet of lockage, and 180,000 feet of excavation through the solid rock; and it is considered, for its length, one of the most remarkable canals in the West. The ground on which Buffalo stands



risers by a very gradual ascent from the edge of the lake up to a fine and extensive level; and while the harbour, pier, wharfs, docks, canal, and warehouses occupy the lower part of the town, all the principal streets and public edifices occupy the more elevated portion.

The city is well laid out, the streets being of ample length and breadth, and arranged with great symmetry. Main-street, which exceeds two miles in length, and is about 120 feet in breadth, is of finer proportions than the Broadway at New-York, and has on each side of it massive piles of buildings, in shops, stores, dwellings, and hotels, which may vie with those of any other city in the Union either for elegance of design, solidity of construction, internal comfort, or external appearance. Several squares are agreeably interspersed in different quarters of the town, enclosed by railings and planted with trees, on an area of beautiful lawn, while the views of the expanded surface of the lake and the more restricted area of the strait, which are seen from almost every part of the town, add great interest and beauty to the scene.

Of public buildings there are the City Hall, a theatre, and fifteen churches, of which the Presbyterian, the Baptist, the Episco-



pal, and the Methodist are the principal. These are all large and substantial structures, and, like all those I have yet seen in America, they are remarkable for great neatness in their interior, and ample accommodation and comfort for their congregations, though of very irregular styles of architecture.

Of the hotels, the American is not only superior to all the others



in Buffalo, but better than any that we had yet been at since our landing in America. In all its rooms space, elegance, and com-

fort were united; the drawing-rooms were furnished in the first style of a private dwelling, the bedrooms were lofty and airy, and the beds excellent. The table was the best furnished and best attended of any at which we had yet sat, though this was the feature in which it was least excellent; and all its subordinate appointments were well maintained. If good cooks could be added, it might rank with any hotel in London, Liverpool, or Bath; but the Americans, as a nation, certainly do not appear to understand the difference between well-fed and tender, and ill-fed and tough provisions, whether in fish, poultry, or flesh-meats; and their modes of preparing and serving up that which they have are so inferior to the processes used in England, that it will require many years to bring them to a standard of equality in this particular.

The population of Buffalo, now consisting of about 20,000, is almost wholly white. We did not remember to have seen 20 coloured people in the place, so thinly are they scattered; but these were well-dressed, and in an apparently prosperous condition. The bulk of the inhabitants are engaged in trade and commerce, though, of course, there are some professional men, as physicians and lawyers, among them. Dutch and German emigrants abound, and Irish are not less numerous. It is from the former that the domestic servants are chiefly taken, and the latter supply the daily labourers of the place. The general appearance of all classes indicates competency and comfort; but there is none of the style and fashion so apparent in the equipages and dresses of New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. The private parties of the more wealthy inhabitants exhibit, however, a happy union of ease and elegance, with more of social frankness, and less of pretension and etiquette, than those of the larger cities, and therefore, to us at least, they were far more agreeable.

Among the buildings projected here, but not yet completed, is a chartered University, to be called "The University of Western New-York," and an Exchange of more colossal proportions than those of London, Paris, Lisbon, or Amsterdam. The elevation of this edifice gives among its dimensions the following: Frontage, 245 feet; depth, 200 feet; diameter of the pillars of the portico, 10 feet 2 inches; height of the pillars and entablature, 86 feet; platform above the roof of the building for support of a dome, 93 feet square and 40 feet high; circular section above the square, 60 feet diameter and 58 feet high, surrounded by a colonnade of 16 pillars, 4 feet 2 in diameter and 32 feet high; dome above this, 60 feet diameter and 34 feet high; entire height from the side pavement to the centre of the dome, 222 feet. Those who are conversant with architectural measurements will at least admire the *scale* of this edifice as to size: it was estimated to cost 5,000,000 of dollars, or upward of a million sterling; and but for the recent derangement of all monetary operations, the sum would have been raised and the building erected before this time.

In the neighbourhood of Buffalo are some agreeable rides, and many pretty villas of the more wealthy citizens, some furnished and occupied, and others in a state of progress. The presence of the lake not only furnishes pleasing views in all directions, but supplies a never-failing breeze from the waters in the morning and in the evening, and makes the nights always cool, so that we suffered less inconvenience from the heat here, with the thermometer at 90° in the day, than we did at Philadelphia and Albany with the thermometer at 85°.

Besides the numerous steamvessels which are seen in the harbour of Buffalo, some of which navigate the lakes to a distance of 3000 miles, there were many schooners and brigs, and one handsome three-masted ship, of about 300 tons, employed in the navigation of these inland seas.

It has been well observed, that, notwithstanding the separate names given to all these large sheets of water, they are, after all, but expansions of the great river St. Lawrence, in its course from its original fountains to the sea. The source of this great river may thus be found on the stream called the St. Louis, which rises about 155 miles N.W. of Lake Superior, and at an elevation of 1200 feet above the level of the sea. In its course to Lake Superior it descends 551 feet, that lake being 641 feet above tide-water. It is 300 miles in length, 80 in breadth, and 900 feet in mean depth, though there are some parts in which the depth is 1200 feet. The river next descends for 60 miles through the Strait of St. Mary, from Lake Superior to Lakes Huron and Michigan, effecting a fall of 602 feet within that course. Lake Huron is about 200 miles in mean length by 95 in mean breadth, and Lake Michigan is about 300 miles in mean length and 50 in mean breadth; each of these are about 1000 feet in mean depth, the level of both being about 600 feet above that of the sea. From hence the river again passes through the Straits of St. Clair and Detroit for a distance of about 90 miles, by which it enters Lake Erie after a fall of about 30 feet.

This lake has considerably less water in it than either of the preceding, though it is still a large sea. It is about 230 miles in mean length by 35 in mean breadth; and though in some places its depth exceeds 300 feet, yet its average or mean depth is not more than 120 feet; and its elevation is 565 feet above the level of the sea. From hence the river passes onward by the Niagara strait of 37 miles, after a fall of 334 feet, into Lake Ontario, which is 180 miles by 30 in mean length and breadth, and its mean depth 500 feet, though in some places it has been sounded with a line of 300 fathoms without reaching the bottom. It is therefore the deepest of all the lakes compared with the extent of its surface, and Lake Erie is the shallowest. The river thus gaining its last expansion, is contracted into the strait of the Thousand Islands, and passes onward by Montreal and Quebec to the sea, forming in its course the

several lakes and straits described, and being, in this point of view, one of the grandest and most remarkable rivers in the world.

During our stay in Buffalo, and while delivering my course of lectures on Egypt there, which were well attended, I was invited to take part in a public meeting at the First Presbyterian Church, to advocate the claims of the Bethel Society of the City, for the amelioration of the condition of the seamen, boatmen, and others engaged on the adjoining waters. The church was crowded to excess, not less than 2000 persons being present in it, while hundreds were said to have gone away for want of room, so that a deep interest was evident in the object of the meeting.

Mr. Hiram Pratt, the principal banker of the city, and president of the Bethel Society, was called to the chair, and opened the business of the meeting.* The Rev. Mr. Charles, of the Baptist Church, and Mr. Hastings, of the New-York bar, proposed and seconded a resolution, after which I was invited to address the audience on the subject; and as the improvement of the condition of seamen had always been an object near my heart, I could speak with great earnestness and some knowledge of the subject on their behalf. The effect appeared to be beneficial, and the impressions left such as produced a timely and valuable addition to the funds of the institution.

I was much struck with the melancholy picture of this large and unfortunate class of men, as presented in an appeal on their behalf, prepared and issued under the sanction of the American Bethel Society, from which, as there is the strongest reason to believe its details authentic, the following extracts may be made; and, considering them to be an American portraiture of an existing class of the American community, published on the very spot where that class is best known and challenging contradiction, it is more valuable than anything from an English pen:

"The theatre of commercial enterprise in the United States is immense. With a country rich in resources beyond a parallel, fertilized by a thousand lakes and rivers, and furnished with every facility for sectional intercourse, we have become, and must remain, essentially a commercial people. Our internal arrangements for the transmission of property and for the convenience of travel are destined to an almost infinite enlargement. Our inland waters are already covered with boats and vessels charged with the freights of every clime, and crowded with a mass of human life that astonishes the beholder. But when our magnificent forests shall have been removed, and our soil fully appropriated to the productions of agriculture; when our mineral resources, nearly unexplored as yet, shall have been laid open and brought into healthful action; and especially when our population shall have become so extended as densely to cover our territories, the carrying trade will have assumed an importance and commanded an agency altogether outranking every other employment. It is destined to gather and disburse the products of an empire.

"It is perhaps impossible to ascertain with anything like precision

* This gentleman has since deceased.

the amount of capital now devoted to this object. But if we take into view the great extent of our natural water-courses, the multitude of steamboats and other vessels which float upon their surfaces; if we then cast our eye upon the canals which intersect these water-courses, and survey their various appendages of boats and horses; and if we then add the warehouses and men necessary to the system, we cannot but conclude that the amount is incalculably great. If we could take in at a single glance, from some lofty eminence, the windings of the great arteries of our republic, the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Hudson, with their tributary branches, as well as our vast inland seas; and if we could then cast our vision beyond the Rocky Mountains, upon the inlets of wealth from that region—a region yet to be filled with a redundancy of life—our minds would be oppressed with the result. We should then be prepared rightly to estimate the magnitude and influence of this employment.

“Of the agents now employed in this business, by far the greatest proportion are watermen, whose numbers have been variously estimated. But it is believed that they will number at least one hundred thousand, the majority of whom, as to morals, are abandoned. The vices of sailors have become so proverbial, that virtue shrinks from all association with them. As they enter our ports they are welcomed only by that class of moral outlaws who infest our cities, and who live about the docks, ‘seeking whom they may devour.’ We need not wonder, then, that they travel swiftly the downward course, that their race is quickly run. Their average life, after entering upon the water, is only about twelve years. Accustomed to constant privations and hardships, they soon become reckless of danger, and, to a great extent, regardless of life. Their moral sense is soon extinguished; but their animal and social propensities still survive, and hence they ordinarily approach our shores with their vicious appetites sharpened and inflamed by a coerced and protracted abstinence. Thus prompted, they immediately congregate in those dens of pollution which have been aptly described as the very ‘nostrils of hell.’ Driven to desperation by the frauds and abuses of their associates, they are ready to avenge themselves upon the community by outrage and violence. The harbours of our lakes and the large villages upon our canals have consequently become a general rendezvous for vagabonds and sharpers.

“Let the same causes be continued for a few years without abatement, and we shall have at least two hundred thousand desperadoes, carrying devastation and death throughout the length and breadth of our land. That these are no idle fears is sufficiently evinced by facts. The calendars of our prisons, and the records of our criminal courts, could they be consulted, would read us a lesson on this subject of the most fearful import. We should there learn that seven tenths of all the crimes committed in the United States within the last five years have been committed in the immediate vicinity of our navigable waters. The State-prison at Auburn during the last year has received into its cells three hundred convicted witnesses of the truth of this remark, from the immediate vicinity of the Erie Canal. Robberies, thefts, and murders have been so frequent on the line of this canal for the last two or three years, that our business-men have become most seriously alarmed, and are beginning to feel that something must be done to stay the progress of this evil.

“To what combination of causes are we to attribute the degradation of sailors? They are familiar with some of the sublimest objects in nature; and were the contemplation of such objects sufficient to secure elevation of character, we should expect a different result. They are familiar, too, with sudden dangers and providential escapes. But nei-

ther fear of the one nor gratitude for the other is found to be efficacious. Men need restraint, and without it they rapidly degenerate. In all our inquiries in reference to the moral or physical degeneracy of men, philosophy teaches us to look as well to their social condition as to their physical circumstances. Look at the watermen on these great thoroughfares in each of these aspects, and the causes of their degradation will be easily developed.

"Their social condition is in many respects deplorable. Professional associations, in civilized communities, generally tend to the elevation of individual character. But watermen are not within the pale of this influence. Their professional associations, owing to the general degradation, have an opposite tendency. Their very first lessons of seaman-ship are connected with profane and licentious allusions. Take almost any young man of promise, and throw him into a business of this kind, where he is compelled to submit to the professional teachings of vicious associates, and you give him over to hopeless ruin. In this feature of their condition, watermen are peculiarly exposed; and this exposure is fearfully increased by their libidinous associations on shore.

"The domestic relations constitute, in the social economy, the great balance-wheel by which the whole system is regulated. Let these be perverted or their influence disturbed, and a train of causes is put in operation which will banish from the community all sense of moral obligation. Without the initiatory discipline of the domestic circle, there could be no point of social attraction. The Jacobins of France could never have deluged that unhappy kingdom with the blood of its slaughtered citizens, had they not first laid their ruthless hands upon its domestic altars. The relations of husband and wife, parent and child, brother and sister, carry with them a weight of obligation, a force of example, and a power of attraction more efficacious in the promotion of morals than the combined influences of law and government. But these sacred influences are rarely felt by the poor sailor. He is an insulated being, 'whose home is upon the waters,' and whose best affections, by sensual indulgences, are frittered away and destroyed.

"Another prominent feature in the condition of watermen consists in their entire seclusion from the influences of a well-directed public sentiment. It is generally considered that public opinion, as a standard of morals, is defective. Yet in restraining vice it is often an instrument of great efficiency. A large portion of the world adopt it as their only standard of action, and a still larger portion avoid its inflictions with instinctive dread. In all well-regulated communities, public opinion exerts a most powerful influence as well in the prevention as in the detection of crime. But, wherever the social system is deranged by the subtraction of any of its essential elements, this influence is perverted, and rendered subservient to the purposes of evil. Thus, among sailors and watermen, the subtraction of the domestic relations, and the Sabbath, has been followed by a public sentiment utterly powerless in favour of virtue, but in its tendency to vice most deeply exciting.

"They are destitute of moral and religious instruction. Whatever differences of opinion may exist upon questions purely religious, no one can deny that some kind of religious and moral training is essential to the formation of a virtuous character. To expect the fulfilment of an obligation from one who knows not the relations on which it is based, is preposterous. 'Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles?'

"The Sabbath is another instrument in the formation of character entitled to the highest respect. It is a specific allotment of time to those studies and duties which constitute its chief basis. An unrelieved activity in the pursuit of any secular business has a tendency to lessen

the weight of moral obligation. A mind thus employed is goaded onward in its narrow pathway without the least regard to surrounding objects. It takes no note of other interests; it forms no plans for the relief of human misery. But when this pursuit is relieved by a day set apart for other duties, involving other interests, other motives, and other feelings, we have a right to expect a different result. Hence we shall always find, among that class of men who respect the Sabbath, an elevated state of morals. The claims of the Sabbath, therefore, as a mere civil institution, are of high import. But when we come to add its religious bearings, it will be seen to lie at the very foundation of all that is valuable in human society. Sailors and watermen, however, are excluded from its healthful influences. To them it brings neither instruction nor rest, and we ought not to wonder at their consequent degradation.

"The physical circumstances of watermen are unfavourable to virtue. Their exposure to the weather at all times, and under every variety of hardship, occasions a great waste of physical energy, for which there is no adequate supply. We are taught by the conditions of our being that, while labour exhausts our frame, rest invigorates it. But our watermen are required to 'make their full tale of brick, notwithstanding they have no straw.' It has long since been demonstrated that the rest of the Sabbath is as essential to bodily vigour as to moral health. Now the great mass of our watermen are required to work night and day, with only an occasional hour for sleep, and are also deprived of the physical rest of the Sabbath. It ought not to be a matter of surprise, therefore, that, in the absence of moral restraint, they are led to seek artificial stimulants to recall their wasted energies. To this source the intemperance of thousands may without fear be attributed. Having taken one step in the downward road, they are easily led to other irregularities; to vice, to crime, and eventually to a premature grave. The physical circumstances of watermen, then, are not only unfavourable to virtue, but they become strong incentives to vice.

"The way is now prepared to inquire for a remedy. We have seen that the evils to be encountered are both secular and moral; *secular*, because they tend to the derangement of commerce by increasing its hazards; and *moral*, because they threaten to sap the foundations of the social system, by scattering 'firebrands, arrows, and death.' The inquiry, then, is not only important, but it must be met and answered.

"To avoid an effect we must remove the cause. It has been already shown that the causes now in question are various; and yet it will be seen that they are so intricately involved as to render it impossible wholly to eradicate them. Some may be obviated, but others must be counteracted. We may protect our watermen from excessive labour and from unnecessary exposure, and we can give them rest. By a proper division of labour we may prevent excessive draughts upon their physical energies, and secure to them the requisite time for sleep. But, above all, we can restore them the Sabbath, and thus, at a single blow, remove the most prominent cause of their degradation and vice.

"The physical causes being removed, we then can give them books in the hope that they will be read. By placing well-selected libraries on board their vessels and within their reach, we can afford them intellectual, moral, and religious instruction, suited to their condition and employment.

"The Sabbaths being restored, we can give them chapels and living teachers. We can then give them the best of all possible substitutes for the influences of the domestic relations, the Gospel of the Son of God. Christianity, whether true or false, is the only system of morals, Infidelity herself being judge, which can effectually restrain the passions

and vices of men; and by giving this, if true, we give them the hopes of another and a better world."

Of the plain good sense and true philanthropy of all this, who can doubt; and of the zeal and earnestness with which the object of moral reform is carried out by those who have here undertaken it, I had abundant proofs. The same evils, I know—and produced, to a great extent, by the same causes—exist among our boatmen, watermen, and canal-men in England; and if those members of the British Parliament who oppose all legislation for the cessation of labour on the Sabbath, could but be brought to see how much it would be for the temporal and secular interests of the labourers themselves, they would never raise the senseless cry against the measure, of its being "a war of the rich against the privileges and enjoyments of the poor;" the poor being the very class who would benefit most largely, if all travelling in public conveyances, all transportation of goods, and all labour of traffic or profit, were strictly prohibited on the Sabbath day, the observance of which as a day of rest is as beneficial in a physical as it is in a moral point of view, and would tend to national happiness as well as to national gain.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Visit to the Settlement of the Seneca Indians.—Statistics of this Tribe in Numbers and Lands.—Council of the Chiefs in the open Forest.—Description of the Tribe and their Condition.—Visit to the Grave of the great Chief Red Jacket.—Anecdote of Red Jacket and Lafayette.—History of the "White Woman," Wife of an Indian Chief.—Atrocities of the English leading the Indians.—Testimony of Corn-planter, a retired Seneca Chief.—Corroborating Narrative of the "White Woman."—Evils produced by the use of intoxicating Drinks.—Winters at Buffalo.—Freezing of the Lakes.—Church-going, Sleighing Parties, and Religious Revivals.—Progress of the Catholics in the Western Cities.—Alarm of the Protestant Sects at this.—Episcopalian Measures of counteraction.—Division of New-York into two Bishoprics.—Newspapers of Buffalo, Number and Character.—Discussion on the rise of Water in the Lakes.—Curious Theory broached on this Subject.—Journey from Buffalo to Rochester.—Williamsville, Ransom's Grove, Pembroke.—Batavia to Rochester by Railroad.

DURING our stay at Buffalo we paid a visit to the nation of Seneca Indians, whose settlement is about six or seven miles south of this city. These form one of the six Indian nations, whose few remaining members still linger in different parts of the State of New-York. They are, therefore, one of the parties to the treaty, discussed in our presence the other day, among the Tuscarora Indians, whom we visited at Niagara, and their assent would accordingly be necessary before the amended treaty could be carried into execution.

A grand council was to be held here as at Tuscarora; and as

the Indians were more numerous, and would be joined also by some of the Onondagas and Cayugas, greater preparations were made to give dignity to its proceedings. The council was intended to be opened on Monday last in the usual council-house; but there being a great number of dissentient chiefs, they would not allow it to be held there, as they were averse to the whole proceeding. A new house had been temporarily erected for the purpose; but that was speedily burned down by some of the discontented Indians, so that the council was ordered to be opened to-day in the deep shade of the grove adjoining their settlement.

We went there with an agreeable party about twelve o'clock, in a carriage, and found there Generals Gillett, Porter, and Dearborn, of the American army, Judge Striker, of the Circuit Court, who opened the council, and a large number of American ladies and gentlemen. The Indians assembled were not more than one hundred, but they were all chiefs, and there were neither women nor children as at the former. The men were more Indian in their costume and physiognomy than the Tuscaroras, and a great number of them came with their tomahawks in their hands. They stretched themselves along in the most careless attitudes beneath the trees, and enjoyed the shade and repose, while they listened to the opening address of the judge and the speech of the commissioner, both of which were translated, sentence by sentence, by one of their own body acting as interpreter, to which they paid great attention, without, however, moving a muscle to betray any emotions, and smoking their pipes with the utmost gravity. The whole scene was far more picturesque and aboriginal than the council held in the church of the Tuscaroras.

I learned on the spot, from conversation with some of the chiefs, that their nation at present numbered about two thousand five hundred; the extent of their reserved land being sixty thousand acres, in four different portions, the largest of which came up almost to the very borders of the town of Buffalo. Of their whole number, not more than one fourth were even nominal Christians; and of these, it was doubted whether more than a very small number really understood and felt the influence of religion. The other three fourths were pagans, as they are here called, clinging to their ancient superstitions, and celebrating every year a festival, in which two white dogs are slain, with peculiar ceremonies.

Respecting the proposed treaty, we were assured that nine tenths of the whole body of the Seneca Indians were opposed to it, and, indeed, averse to any removal at all. Of the chiefs, who were ninety-six in number, more than half were openly hostile to the measure, and it was said by the Indians themselves that those who supported it had been bribed by the government to express favourable opinions. In this way they feared that a great many of the more dissolute and drunken of their number would be

brought over, with dollars and whiskey, to give their assent, and thus the tribe would be sold; but they seemed to have great reliance on a chief who was present, named Big Kettle, to oppose the fallacy of the treaty, and rouse the whole tribe to oppose it. The business of the day ended, however, with the commissioner's statement, and at three o'clock the council adjourned till the following day.

On our return homeward we halted at the spot near the Mission-house and church, built on the grounds of the Indian Reservation, for the purpose of visiting the tomb of Red Jacket, the famous Seneca chief, who was buried here about seven years ago; and the grave of Mary Jameson, "the white woman," as she was always called, who was born of Irish parents on their voyage out from England to America as emigrants, was afterward captured by the Indians, and subsequently married and survived two Indian chiefs as husbands, leaving by them a large family of half-breed Indian children, who are now members of the Seneca nation. The part taken by Red Jacket in resisting the encroachment of the whites, and defending the right of the red man to the soil of his ancestors, gave him unbounded popularity among his tribe, and spread his reputation among the Indian nations generally. In the first treaty between the United States and the Six Nations after the Revolution in 1784, Red Jacket first rose into notice, and the narrative of this is thus given in Mr. O'Reilly's History of the Lands of the Six Nations:

"The cession of their hunting-grounds northwest of the Ohio was vigorously, though unavailingly, opposed by several of the red men. Saguaha, or Red Jacket, then young and nameless among the head men, rose rapidly in favour with the Senecas for his hostility to the measure; while the popularity of their great chief, Corn-planter, suffered severely among his race for his partiality to the whites in the arrangement. The reservation on the Alleghany river, whereon his descendants still abide, formed part of the gratuity bestowed on the half-breed chief (for Corn-planter was the son of John Abeel or O'Bail) whose exertions contributed so largely to the furtherance of the views of the American government. The patriotism of Red Jacket was then thoroughly aroused, and his wisdom and eloquence were both zealously employed to vindicate the rights of the red man against the encroaching influence of the 'pale faces.' He was elected a chief among the Senecas soon after this treaty, and his influence was great among the Indian confederacy for upward of forty years, till death prevented him from witnessing the complete success of the policy (which he had resolutely opposed) for the total expatriation of his race by the removal westward of the fragments of the Six Nations yet lingering in Western New-York.

"The hostility of Red Jacket to the treaty of Fort Stanwix was so ingenious and enthusiastic, that it was vividly remembered by Lafayette (though the name of the orator was forgotten) on his last visit to the United States. It is not surprising that the name should have been forgotten, as, at the time of the treaty, Red Jacket was young and nameless among his tribe, his character having then only begun to develop itself, though he had not been backward among the warriors, whose hostilities

in the Revolutionary war provoked the summary vengeance inflicted on their confederacy by the expedition of General Sullivan. When at Buffalo on his tour through the Union, Lafayette was reminded by Red Jacket of the treaty of Fort Stanwix. 'The occurrences are fresh in my memory,' said the veteran general; 'and what became of the young warrior who then so eloquently opposed the burying of the tomahawk, and who so zealously resisted the cession of lands to the whites?' 'HE IS NOW BEFORE YOU!' said Red Jacket.

"An anecdote characteristic of Red Jacket has been mentioned to us by an old settler. At the conference for the formation of the treaty, Colonel Pickering commenced making memoranda as Red Jacket was speaking. The Indian orator, while depicting the wrongs which the red men had suffered from the encroachments of the whites, paused suddenly, addressed himself with energetic dignity to Colonel Pickering, and exclaimed, 'Look up from the table, brother, and fix your eyes upon my eyes, *that you may see that what Sagwaha says is the truth, and no lie!*'"

Of the "White Woman," whose tomb lies side by side with that of Red Jacket, a biographical memoir was drawn up in 1823 by Mr. J. E. Seaver, of Genesee, assisted by Mr. D. W. Barrister and others, who were enabled to obtain from her lips the record of many facts, which would otherwise have passed into obscurity or oblivion by her death. The work was entitled, "A Narrative of the Life of Mary Jameson, who was taken by the Indians in the year 1755, when only about twelve years of age, and has continued to reside among them to the present time; containing an account of the murder of her father and his family; her troubles with her sons, who were killed in feuds among themselves or with others; barbarities of the Indians in the French and Revolutionary war; the life of Hiokattoo, her last husband (a Seneca chief, who died at the age of 103), his exploits against the Cherokees, Cata-teas, and other Southern Indians; and many historical facts never before published, carefully taken down from her own words, November 29, 1823."

Among the atrocities perpetrated by the Indians during the Revolutionary war, the conduct of an Englishman named Ebenezer Allen, often called the Indian Allen, surpassed that of any of his red allies. The White Woman, in her narrative, says of him, "While prowling with his Indian allies in the Susquehanna Valley, he surprised the inmates of a dwelling by bursting suddenly upon them in their beds. The father, springing up to defend his family, was killed by one blow of Allen's tomahawk. The head of the murdered man was thrown at his feeble wife, from whose arms the infant was torn, and dashed to death before her eyes! It has been said," continues the White Woman, "though I will not relate it for a certainty, that, after perpetrating these murders, he opened the fire, and buried the quivering corpse of the infant beneath the embers:" and she adds, "I have often heard him speak of the transactions of that family as the foulest crimes he had ever committed."

This Allen was one of the English Tories who opposed the American Revolution, and fought with the Indians against the colonists. He seems, as his biographer justly remarks, to have united "the lasciviousness of the Turk with the bloodthirstiness of a savage, and his whole career appears to have been made up of lust, rapine, and cruelty; adulteries and murders were his daily food: he married wives, and then put them to death; stole virgins, and then cast them off; took captives for concubines, and then drowned them, as well as their former husbands, with a degree of barbarity that was perfectly demoniacal. He died on the River De French, at the town of Delaware, in 1814, leaving two white widows, an Indian squaw, and several children to survive him."

The accuracy of this narrative of the White Woman is corroborated by the history of General Sullivan's expedition against the Indians of the Six Nations, published in 1824 by Mr. Salmon, who died during the last year, 1837. This expedition of General Sullivan was undertaken in 1779, when the American Congress recommended, and General Washington adopted, the most rigorous measures to avenge the atrocities perpetrated by the Indians, "whose deeds were inscribed with the scalping-knife and the tomahawk, in characters of blood, on the fields of Wyoming and Cherry Valley, and on the banks of the Mohawk.

"Of these cruelties, stimulated, and often perpetrated, by the English Tories leading the Indians and acting with them, the following is only one of many specimens. It occurred in the attack of the British Rangers, under Colonel Butler, and is given in Salmon's narrative, and corroborated by several other authorities:

"A party of Indians, then in the British employ, had entered a house, and killed and scalped a mother and a large family of children. This was at a spot on the west side of the Genesee River, where a small town called Leicester now stands. The Indians had just completed their work of death, when some Royalists belonging to their party came up, and discovered an infant still alive in the cradle. An Indian warrior, noted for his barbarity, approached the cradle with his uplifted hatchet. The babe looked up in his face and smiled; the feelings of nature triumphed over the ferocity of the savage; the hatchet fell from his hand, and he was in the act of stooping down to take the infant in his arms, when one of the Royalists, cursing the Indian for his humanity, took it up on the point of his bayonet, and, holding it up, struggling in the agonies of death, exclaimed, 'This, too, is a rebel!'"

Such are the atrocities of war, and such the extinction of all humanity, even in the breasts of the loyal, the chivalrous, and the devout, the upholders of the divine right of kings, and the defenders of Church and State as the great bulwarks of Christianity.

Some remarkable exposures of the agency of Great Britain in producing these atrocities have been brought to light from time to

time, and two of them are sufficiently remarkable to be quoted here. The first was a communication made by the great Indian rival of Red Jacket, a chief also of the Seneca tribe, named Corn-planter, who was always as friendly to the whites as Red Jacket was hostile to them, and whose testimony is unexceptionable on this point. So recently as 1822, when residing on the banks of the Alleghany River, where he had a tract of land on which he dwelt, he makes the following disclosure to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, then in session at Harrisburg. He says:

"I will tell you now, brothers, who are in session in the Legislature of Pennsylvania, that the Great Spirit has made known to me that I have been very wicked, and the cause thereof was the Revolutionary war in America. The cause of the Indians having been led into sin at that time was, that many of them were in the practice of drinking and getting intoxicated. Great Britain requested us to join in the conflict against the Americans, and promised the Indians *money and liquor*. I myself was opposed to joining in the conflict, as I had nothing to do with the difficulty that existed between the two parties."

The other authority is that of the White Woman, whose narrative was taken down from her own lips in 1823, without concert with Corn-planter, who was then at a distance, and had for years lived estranged from the tribe, in consequence of his being opposed to the policy of Red Jacket, and thought to be too favourable to the whites. Their statement, therefore, independent as it is of the other, and going much more into detail, must be regarded as strikingly corroborative of the truth of Corn-planter's averment; and, though it places the conduct of the British in a most detestable light, it is right that the nation itself, and the world, should know to what atrocities colonial misgovernment may lead. The White Woman says:

"After the conclusion of the French war [or, rather, after the termination of the difficulties consequent on the connexion of the Senecas with the conspiracy of Pontiac], our tribe had nothing to trouble them till the commencement of the Revolution. For twelve or thirteen years the implements of war were not known, nor the war-whoop heard, save on days of festivity, when the achievements of former times were commemorated in a kind of mimic warfare, in which the chiefs and warriors displayed their prowess, and illustrated their former adroitness, by laying the ambuscade, surprising their enemies, and performing many accurate manœuvres with the tomahawk and scalping-knife, thereby preserving and handing down to their children the theory of Indian warfare. During that period they also pertinaciously observed the religious rites of their progenitors, by attending, with the most scrupulous exactness and a great degree of enthusiasm, to the sacrifices at different times, to appease the anger of the evil deity, or to excite the commiseration and friendship of the great good Spirit, whom they adored with reverence as the author, governor, supporter, and disposer of every good thing of which they participated.

"They also practised in various athletic games, such as running,

wrestling, leaping, and playing ball, with a view that their bodies might be more supple, or, rather, that they might not become enervated, and that they might be enabled to make a proper selection of chiefs for the councils of the nation and leaders for war. No people can live more happy than the Indians did in times of peace, before the introduction of spirituous liquors among them. Their lives were a continual round of pleasures. Their wants were few and easily satisfied, and their cares were only for to-day, the bounds of their calculations for future comforts scarcely extending to the incalculable uncertainties of to-morrow. If ever peace dwelt with men, it was in former times, in the recesses from war, among those who are now termed barbarians. The moral character of the Indians was (if I may be allowed the expression) uncontaminated. Their fidelity was perfect, and became proverbial; they were strictly honest; they despised deception and falsehood; and chastity was held in high veneration; a violation of it was considered sacrilege. They were temperate in their desires, moderate in their passions; and candid and honourable in the expression of their sentiments on every subject of importance.

"Thus, at peace among themselves and with the neighbouring whites, though there were none at that time very near, our Indians lived quietly and peaceably at home till a little before the breaking out of the Revolutionary war, when they were sent for, together with the chiefs and members of the Six Nations generally, by the people of the States, to go to German Flats and there hold a general council, in order that the people of the States might ascertain in good season whom they should esteem and treat as enemies and whom as friends, in the great war which was then upon the point of breaking out between them and the King of England.

"Our Indians obeyed the call, and the council was holden, at which the pipe of peace was smoked and a treaty made, in which the Six Nations solemnly agreed that, if a war should eventually break out, they would not take up arms on either side, but that they would observe a strict neutrality. With that the people of the States were satisfied, as they did not ask their assistance, and did not wish it. The Indians returned to their homes, well pleased that they could live on neutral ground, surrounded with the din of war without being engaged in it.

"The treaty here referred to was made by General Schuyler with the Indian council assembled at German Flats on the 14th of June, 1776, pursuant to an act of Congress of the 6th May, providing 'that treaties should be held with the Indians in the different departments as soon as practicable,' &c.

"About a year passed off," says the White Woman, "and we, as usual for some years before, were enjoying ourselves in the employments of peaceable times, when a messenger arrived from the British commissioners, requesting all the Indians of our tribe to attend a general council which was soon to be held at Oswego. The council convened; and being opened, the British commissioners informed the chiefs that the object of calling a council of the Six Nations was to engage their assistance in subduing the rebels, the people of the States, who had risen up against the good king their master, and were about to rob him of a great part of his possessions and wealth. The commissioners added, that they would amply reward the Indians for all their services.

"The chiefs then rose, and informed the commissioners of the nature and extent of the treaty which they had entered into with the people of the States the year before, and that they should not violate it by taking up the hatchet against them. The commissioners continued their en-

treaties without success till they addressed their avarice and appetites. They told ~~our~~ people that the people of the States were few in number and easily subdued, and that, on account of their disobedience to the king, they justly merited ~~an~~ the punishment that it was possible for white men and Indians to inflict upon them. They added that the king was rich and powerful, both in money and subjects; that *his rum was as plenty as the water in Lake Ontario*; that his men were as numerous as the sands upon the lake shore; and that the Indians, if they would assist in the war, and persevere in their friendship to the king till it was closed, should never want for money or goods. Upon this the chiefs concluded a treaty with the British commissioners, in which they agreed to take up arms against the rebels, and continue in the service of his majesty till they were subdued, in consideration of certain conditions, which were stipulated in the treaty, to be performed by the British government and its agents.

"As soon as the treaty was finished, the commissioners made a present to each Indian of a suit of clothes, a brass kettle, a gun, a tomahawk, a scalping-knife, a quantity of powder and lead, and a piece of gold; promising likewise a bounty on every scalp that should be brought in. Thus richly clad and equipped, they returned home, after an absence of about two weeks, full of the fire of war, and anxious to encounter their enemies."

This introduction of rum and whiskey among the Indians, a curse which they owe entirely to the whites, has been a more powerful agent in their demoralization and destruction than any other that has ever been brought to act on them. In their semi-civilized state, the propensity to drink, which pervades all classes among the Indians, makes them indolent, stupid, and treacherous, and renders them an easy prey to any designer who will only apply this mode of destruction. Among the Western tribes, remote from civilization, it produces the same effects, and so aggravates all the symptoms of the most fearful diseases, that every year sees thousands of their numbers swept away to a premature grave by the cholera, the black sickness, or the smallpox, in all attacks of which spirituous liquors are freely drank as the preventive; and this serving only to aggravate all the symptoms, hundreds breathe their last with the rum-bottle in their hands! At all councils it is still freely distributed, either before or pending the negotiations. When treaties are signed, presents for rum are passed from one party to the other, and for weeks afterward drunkenness and dissoluteness are seen in the most aggravated forms among the Indians. The two following paragraphs, taken from the Rochester Democrat of August 27, are strikingly illustrative of the ravages committed among all classes by this destructive poison.

RAILROAD ACCIDENT.—While the train of cars on the Lockport and Niagara Falls' Railroad was going west on Saturday last, the train ran over an Indian squaw who was lying drunk across the track, in the Tuscarora Reservation. Both legs were severed from her body, and she died soon after.

"DISTRESSING RAILROAD ACCIDENT."—As this morning's train of cars from Stonington was approaching the village of Greenwich, Rhode

Island, a deaf and dumb man chanced to be crossing the railroad at the very moment the cars rushed by. Of course, neither the bell attached to the engine, nor the shrill sound of the steam-whistle, both of which had given their timely warning when the train was nearing the cross-roads, could notify him of his danger. Walking deliberately up to the locomotive, a blow from the projecting part of the framework felled him to the ground, and so severely injured the poor creature, by breaking his arm and dreadfully fracturing his skull, that when the cars left him with his friends, it was evident he could survive but a few moments. We learn that not the slightest blame can be attached to the engineer on the road. A *whiskey bottle*, which was found shivered to atoms in the pocket of the dying mute, accounts for the stupefaction under which his other senses—generally so accute and vigilant in persons deprived of their hearing—must have been labouring, to have allowed him thus to walk into destruction itself."

There are two classes of human beings—"the poor, untutored Indian," and "the helpless deaf and dumb"—for whom our sympathies are so often appealed to, and who are so largely entitled to our protection, literally murdered, and sent to a premature grave by this licensed and authorized traffic in a poison, the only excuse for the sale of which is, that it enables the maker and vender to grow rich on the sufferings, diseases, and deaths of their fellow-creatures. When will the legislatures of civilized countries see that humanity, religion, and sound policy all concur to recommend the extinction of such a baleful and blighting traffic as this?*

After our return from the settlement of the Seneca Indians, we remained some days longer in Buffalo; and as the weather, though warm, was deliciously fresh and agreeable to the feelings, owing to the daily breeze from the lake, we enjoyed our excursions and perambulations in and around the town and its vicinity. In the winter, we were told, the weather is extremely cold; the entire surface of the lake being frozen over, the Erie Canal shut up, and the thermometer frequently below zero. This necessarily leads to a general suspension of business, as the transport of goods is impracticable; and this is the season in which the time of the inhabitants is divided between church-going, which is more frequent than in the summer, evening visits, sleighing parties, and religious revivals. These things stand in singular juxtaposition; but we heard from the lips of a clergyman of the city, some time resident here, and thoroughly conversant with the state of society, the statement that, to use his own language, "there was a great deal of mechanism employed in the getting up of religious revivals, for which the winter was found to be most favourable in the cities, because of the leisure, and consequent disposition to excitement." The permanent good produced by these revivals thus "got up," is a question that would admit of great difference of opinion.

The Catholics, who are continually increasing their numbers

* See some beautiful lines on this subject, by Mrs. Sigourney, the American poetess, in the Appendix, No. IV.

from the large body of German, Swiss, and Irish emigrants that every year flock to this quarter in search of employment, make equal exertions with the Protestants to keep alive the flame of religious zeal, though they take different means to accomplish their object. Great alarm seems to prevail among the Protestant sects in general as to the progress making by the Catholics in the West, and it is undoubted that large and costly churches are springing up in every city, the funds of which are believed to be transmitted from Europe, as there are no visible sources of income for such undertakings here.

At Buffalo a new Catholic Church is building outside and over the old one, which is left standing in the middle of the new edifice, so that the congregation may continue their worship there until the exterior church is finished all but the pavement, when it will be taken down, and all its materials removed. It is thought, from the plans and drawings, that this new Catholic Church will far outstrip in size and splendour all the Protestant edifices of Buffalo; and this external display, no doubt, has very powerful attractions for the uneducated multitude.

The Episcopalian Protestants, who follow the doctrines and ritual of the Church of England, are, on the whole, the most strongly opposed to the progress of the Catholics, and are making corresponding efforts to counteract their influence. One of their measures is to divide the State of New-York into an eastern and western diocese, and thus to have two bishops instead of one. For this purpose a Convention of the Episcopal Church is now holding at Utica, at which the present bishop of the diocese, Dr. Onderdonk, presides; and of the clerical members sent to the Convention by the respective churches, all seem disposed to favour this division of the diocese into two—the creation of a second bishop, and the augmentation of the clerical body. When it is considered that the area of the state is nearly as great as that of England and Wales united, and that the bishop is expected to visit every part of it personally in the course of the year, it must be admitted that it is more than one man could adequately superintend.

The public press of Buffalo numbers four daily newspapers: the Journal, the Patriot, the Star, and the Buffalonian. The first two are Whig or Conservative in their politics, the third is Democratic, and the fourth, which is a penny paper, is neutral. They are conducted with average talent, but with all the one-sidedness of partisanship which is so characteristic of American newspapers generally. The smaller paper, like most of its class, deals much more in personalities and private gossip than the larger ones, and is much less political. It is curious that this should be the case with nearly all the cheap papers I have seen in America; and this fact has made me less anxious than I once was to see cheap newspapers multiplied in England. There are bad productions enough,

it is true, among the expensive journals; but the smaller penny papers here are certainly worse, more personal, more disposed to invade the sanctity of private life, and less scrupulous than the dearer ones at bringing matters wholly of a private nature before the gaze of the public eye.

This must arise, to a certain extent, from the depraved taste of the community; for, unless such topics were acceptable to a very large class, such papers could not command the extensive circulation they enjoy, and, without an extensive circulation, no papers at so cheap a price could sustain their existence. The remedy for this evil is undoubtedly a better education for the humbler classes, not merely to embrace solid and useful knowledge, but to include a refinement of taste and purity of manners; in that case, the newspapers printed for their use would of necessity come up to their standard of intelligence and taste, for without this they could not be made acceptable to their readers.

Among the discussions that have recently relieved the political strife of the newspapers in this quarter, one has been on the rise of the water in the upper lakes—Michigan, Huron, and Erie—and on the causes of this phenomenon. Of the fact there seems no doubt; at least all parties to the controversy admit that of late years there has been a sensible increase in the waters of these lakes, and a consequent elevation of their surface, though the statements are not sufficiently accurate to speak with confidence as to the exact extent. Among the various theories advanced by different writers to account for this increase, the following has the greatest novelty in it, and receives general credit here.

"RISE OF WATER IN THE LAKES.—A new idea on this subject has been broached by a writer in the Rochester Democrat, founded on the discoveries of Dr. Sherwood in magnetism. According to the theory of Dr. S. (says the writer), the water in the lakes will continue to rise so long as the magnetic pole is in their neighbourhood, and which traverses around the north pole, in the arctic circle, from east to west, making one revolution in 666 years; consequently, it moves at the rate of 32 minutes 26 seconds annually, which in this latitude is about 24 geographic miles. The magnetic pole is now just north of Hudson's Bay, and the magnetic meridian passes through the county of Erie, and crosses Lake Erie somewhat obliquely from south to north, about 70 miles west of this city. It will require about five years to reach Detroit, twelve to reach Lake Michigan, and fifteen to reach the western limit of Lake Superior, during the whole of which period the water in the lakes will probably continue to rise. At this time the magnetic pole and meridian will have completed about half their journey over the western hemisphere, or one quarter of their revolution; after this they approximate to the Mississippi, and then to the Rocky Mountains, when it is probable that the accumulating waters, snow, and rain, that obey their influence and follow their tract, will find a different outlet and vent to the ocean, viz., by the Mississippi, Oregon, &c., instead of the St. Lawrence, after which the waters of the lake will begin to decrease."

After a stay of about ten days in Buffalo, we prepared to leave.

it for Rochester; but on the morning of our departure we were visited by two old acquaintances of mine, now residing in the neighbourhood of Buffalo, one a gentleman whom I had known in England as a teacher in one of the most popular academies in the neighbourhood of London, and the other, Captain Truscott, of the navy, who for many years commanded the India ship *General Palmer*, from London to Madras. These were pleasant rencounters at so distant a spot from home, and seemed equally agreeable to us all.

We found it most convenient, as our party consisted of four, to take an "exclusive extra," as a private hired carriage is called, to convey ourselves and all our baggage, which gave us the entire command of our own time in setting out and arriving; and as these "extras" are always of the full size of stage-coaches, with seats for nine inside, we rode at great ease. Yet, though we had this roomy vehicle and four good horses, which, with the driver, was changed every eight or ten miles, the expense was less than a postchaise would have cost in England. Our distance from Buffalo to Batavia was forty miles, for which we paid eighteen dollars, or 3*l.* 12*s.* sterling, with no fees to coachman, ostler, or turnpikes, all being covered by the sum named; and the persons and baggage together being more than two chaises would have been willing to take in England, each one of which, at eighteen pence a mile posting, and sixpence for postboys, ostlers, and turnpikes, would have made 4*l.* sterling. We had, moreover, the additional comfort of never changing the coach throughout the whole distance, and driving four horses all the way. The roads were, for the greater part, tolerably good; but one piece of genuine corduroy road, about a mile in length, composed wholly of logs, or trees with the bark on, laid horizontally across the road, and the interstices loosely filled up with earth, shook us terribly, and gave us some idea of the misery of travelling for any length of time on such a rough and jolting way. We performed the distance of forty miles in six hours; but the regular stage-coach, which set out about the same time, being heavily laden with nine inside passengers and their full complement of baggage, was nine hours in performing the same journey.

We passed, between Buffalo and Batavia, three pleasant and flourishing little villages, at distances of eight or ten miles apart, namely, Williamsville, Ransom's Grove, and Pembroke, in each of which was a good inn, and a population of from 500 to 1000 inhabitants each. The country was in many places only just cleared of its wood, the stumps of the felled trees still remaining in the ground, and in the centre of the cleared patches rude log-huts were raised for the accommodation of the first settlers. The carts and other vehicles that we met on the way were all much longer and narrower than those used in England, and the fore and hind

wheels much more distant from each other. In almost all two horses were driven abreast, and many had four horses in two pairs, but few being driven in a single line or team. The use of the buffalo skin, with its thick, shaggy brown fur, as the covering for the seat occupied by the riders, was universal, and contributed very much to give the whole scene a wild Indian air, when seen in association with dense masses of thick and impenetrable forests, small patches of recently cleared land, log-huts, and stumps of trees on fire, with their trunks lying along and still encumbering the ground.

At Batavia we found an extremely pretty town, with an arsenal and powder magazine at its entrance, and a number of beautiful villas surrounded by gardens in the neighbourhood. Here, as everywhere else throughout the inland towns of America, the streets are of ample width, never less than 100 feet and often 150, with excellent sidewalks shaded by rows of full-foliaged trees. Several good hotels are found at Batavia; the one at which we dined being as clean, airy, and well-furnished as any we had seen on the road, and the spacious piazza or balcony running in front of the house adding comfort to beauty. The signs of the hotels and inns are not so varied as in England or France; the greater number are designated chiefly by the names of the persons keeping them. The signs are rarely affixed to the houses, or embellished with any pictorial representation. They are mostly circular or oval pieces of wood, placed on a high and strong wooden pillar at some distance in front of the house, like a large target, visible from a considerable distance on the road, uniting great simplicity, strength, and distinctness.

At Batavia—which, from its appearance, may be regarded as a very prosperous town, and contains at present about six thousand inhabitants—we took the railroad to Rochester, the distance being thirty-two miles, the time occupied two hours, and the fare one dollar and a quarter, or five shillings sterling each.

We reached Rochester about eight o'clock in the evening on Saturday, the 25th of August; and, at the place of the railroad cars stopping, the crowd of persons attending on behalf of the hotels, canal-packets, stages, and railroads, was immense; at least fifty voices were heard at the same time vociferating, "Eagle Tavern," "Rochester House," "splendid rooms," "excellent table," "persons and baggage conveyed free of charge," and similar temptations. The competition is intense, and each hotel sends its own coach for passengers, and cart and porters for baggage, though sometimes, in the confusion, the passenger is taken to one house and his trunks to another, when he is sure to displease one party at least. We were speedily transferred to the Eagle, where we found comfortable quarters and obliging attendants; and here, therefore, we took up our abode.

CHAPTER XIX.

First Settlement of Rochester.—Contest with wild Bears.—Purchase of Indian Land.—Death and Character of the original Founder.—Last Pagan Sacrifice of the Indians.—Striking Resemblance to the Scapegoat of the Jews.—First Christian Church.—Incorporation as a City.—Education, Sunday-schools.—Temperance Societies.—Plan of Rochester.—Streets and Buildings.—Staple Trade, Wheat and Flour.—Extent of Water-power.—Genesee, or the Pleasant Valley.—Poetical Beauty of Indian Names.—Falls of the Genesee.—West and Catlin.—Fatal Leap from the Falls by an American.—Great Flood.—Carpet Manufactory, Paper-mills, Pianos.—Edge-tools, Iron-works, and Machinery.—Cabinet-making, Cooperage.—Impolicy and Effect of the British Corn-laws.—Recent Introduction of Silk.—Soil and Productions of the Genesee Valley.—Institutions of Religion, Benevolence, and Literature.—Comparison with Towns of the same Size in Britain.—Erie Canal.—Difficulties attending this Work.—Prospective Views of General Washington.—Opinions of Gouverneur Morris.—Ceremony of opening the Canal at Rochester.—Love of Display in Public Celebrations in America.—Extent of Inland Navigation.

WE remained in Rochester for ten days, comfortably accommodated at the Eagle Hotel; and my course of Lectures on Egypt having been very numerous attended in the Bethel Free Church, in which they were delivered, I was soon brought in communication with the principal residents of the city, and our stay was rendered agreeable by their personal kindness and attention. Among these individuals were several of the first settlers in the city, its first mayor, Mr. Child, and its best historian, Mr. Henry O'Reilly, the present postmaster of Rochester, who has produced, from the most authentic sources, chiefly living witnesses, an excellent volume, published in the present year, 1838, entitled "Settlement in the West, or Sketches of Rochester, with Incidental Notices of the State of New-York."

In the various excursions which we made in the vicinity of the city, as well as in the examination of all that was curious or interesting within the city itself, I was greatly assisted by the courtesy and experience of the individuals named; and from the oral information thus obtained, the documentary evidence in the production named above, and my own personal observation, I was enabled to prepare the following account of the history and statistics of Rochester, as well as a description of its present appearance and condition, under circumstances the most favourable that could be desired for ensuring fulness and fidelity combined.

The spot where Rochester now stands was in 1808 a completely uncleared and untrodden forest, and in its neighbourhood were two small settlements, called Pittsford and Perrinton, each containing only a few pioneer families, who had penetrated thus far, and literally cut their way through the wilderness. The River Genesee, at the point on which the present bridge of Rochester is built, appearing to these settlers to offer a favourable spot for the

erection of a bridge—the nearest bridge then across the stream being at Avon, a distance of twenty miles to the south—the settlers in these two hamlets joined in petitioning the State Legislature of New-York, then sitting at Albany, for an act to authorize its construction. This measure was, however, strongly opposed by several members of the Legislature, one of whom used the following language as descriptive of the spot: “It is,” said he, “a God-forsaken place, inhabited by muskrats, visited only by straggling trappers, through which neither man nor beast could gallop without fear of starvation or fever and ague;” and, although the act was ultimately passed, it continued to be reprobated by many as an extravagant waste of the public money to erect a bridge in such an “outlandish and unfrequented spot.”



In 1812 there were two wooden frame buildings only on the spot, each consisting of a single room, the one occupied by Mr. Isaac Stone, and the other by his relative, Mr. Enos Stone, one of which is still existing, in its original state, in the heart of the present town. At this period but a small patch of land was cleared around each of these humble dwellings; and a few acres of Indian corn, planted among the stumps of the recently-felled trees, was all the crop they could yet command. This was, however, so exposed to the depredations of the wild bears, that the utmost vigilance on the part of the planters was necessary to save their corn; and a furious contest took place between Enos Stone and one of the largest she-bears that had ever been seen in this part of the country, which, after innumerable difficulties of burning out and smoking from tree to tree, he at length succeeded in shooting; and her shaggy skin was for a long while preserved as the trophy of his victory.

The first allotment of land for building a village was made in

1812, on the tract which was purchased by Phelps and Gorham for a "timber yard" to supply the saw-mill they proposed to erect on the river here; and for this purpose they persuaded the Indians to assign them a territory 24 miles long by 12 broad along the banks of the Genesee, from this spot to the Lake Ontario! This "millyard," as it was also called, had passed from the original purchasers into the possession of Sir William Pulteney, an English baronet, from whom it was purchased in 1802 at 17 dls. 50 cts., or about 3*l.* 10*s.*, per acre for the fee simple, by three individuals, Nathaniel Rochester, Charles H. Carroll, and William Fitzhugh. These were the founders of the hamlet of Rochester; and the first of these purchasers, after whom the place was named, lived to see it grow to a large and flourishing city, as his death occurred only seven years ago, on the 17th of May, 1831, when, such was the veneration and respect entertained for his character, and such the regret felt for his loss, that all the public bodies of Rochester united in demonstrations of esteem and sorrow. The courts of law suspended their sittings to attend his funeral; the city corporation followed their example; and the clergy, the army, and the citizens at large, all attended his remains to the grave; and his biographer closes the affecting narrative of his death, at the venerable age of eighty, by saying, "The good old man has gone from among us! Long will his survivors cherish the remembrance of the venerable form, the silvered locks, and easy dignity, of the patriarch. Long may we cherish the example of his simplicity, integrity, disinterestedness, and faith! Filial affection may build for him the marble tomb, public gratitude may grave the recorded eulogy—but they are not needed. He has erected his own monument, splendid and enduring; it is sculptured by his own hand, and we have only to reply to him who asks us in what shrine it is set up, in the simple and majestic epitaph of England's proudest temple (the inscription over the tomb of Sir Christopher Wren in his own noble edifice, the Cathedral of St. Paul's in London), 'SI QUÆRIS MONUMENTUM —CIRCUMSPICE.'"

In 1813, the native Indians of the Seneca tribe were still encamped here, and in that year some of their pagan ceremonies were performed for the last time, though similar ceremonies continue to be observed by them in the neighbourhood of Buffalo to the present day. The Indians of this tribe have five feasts annually, at which they return thanks to Nauwanew, or the Great Spirit, for his blessings, and pray him to spare his wrath. At these festivals also the chiefs hold their councils, and urge on the people the duty of so conducting themselves as to ensure the favour of the Great Spirit in peace and in war. Their first festival is after planting, and the others at successive periods of ripening, gathering, and the close of the year. The following is the narrative of one of these pagan festivals, given in detail in Mr. O'Reilly's inter-

esting work already referred to. Speaking of the Indian festival which occurs at the close of the year, he says:

"The latter ceremonial was performed for the last time in Rochester in January, 1813. The concluding rites were seen by some of the few persons then settled in 'these parts.' From Mr. Edwin Scranton, now a merchant of the city, who was among the spectators, we have had an account of the ceremonial, as far as he beheld it, which corresponds with the accounts given by the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, long a missionary among the Six Nations, and by the 'White Woman,' that remarkable associate of the Senecas.

"The latter personage related, that when the Indians returned from hunting, ten or twenty of their number were appointed to superintend the great 'sacrifice and thanksgiving.' Preparations were made at the council-house, or other place of meeting, for the accommodation of the tribe during the ceremonial. Nine days was the period, and two white dogs the number and kind of animals formerly required for the festival; though in these latter days of reform and retrenchment (for the prevailing spirit had reached even the wigwams and the altars of the Senecas), the time has been curtailed to seven or five days, and a single dog was made the scapegoat to bear away the sins of the tribe! Two dogs, as nearly white as could be procured, were usually selected from those belonging to the tribe, and were carefully killed at the door of the council-house by means of strangulation; for a wound on the animal, or an effusion of blood, would spoil the victim for the sacrificial purpose. The dogs were then fantastically painted with various colours, decorated with feathers, and suspended about twenty feet high at the council-house, or near the centre of the camp.

"The ceremonial is then commenced, and the five, seven, or nine days of its continuance are marked by feasting and dancing, as well as by sacrifice and consultation. Two select bands, one of men and another of women, ornamented with trinkets and feathers, and each person furnished with an ear of corn in the right hand, dance in a circle around the council fire which is kindled for the occasion, and regulate their steps by rude music. Hence they proceed to every wigwam in the camp, and in like manner dance in a circle around each fire.

"Afterward, on another day, several men clothe themselves in the skins of wild beasts, cover their faces with hideous masks, and their hands with the shell of the tortoise, and in this garb they go among the wigwams, making horrid noises, taking the fuel from the fire, and scattering the embers and ashes about the floor, for the purpose of driving away evil spirits. The persons performing these operations are supposed not only to drive off the evil spirit, but to concentrate within themselves all the sins of their tribe. These sins are afterward all transfused into one of their own number, who, by some magical dexterity or sleight-of-hand, works off from himself into the dogs the concentrated wickedness of the tribe!

"The scapegoat dogs are then placed on a pile of wood, to which fire is applied, while the surrounding crowd throw tobacco or other incense upon the flame, the scent of which is deemed to co-operate with the sacrifice of the animals in conciliating the favour of Nauwanew, or the Great Spirit. When the dogs are partly consumed, one is taken off, and put into a large kettle with vegetables of various kinds, and all around devour the contents of the 'reeking caldron.' After this the Indians perform the dances of war and peace, and smoke the calumet: then, free from wickedness, they repair to their respective places of abode, prepared for the events of the new year."

Whether this will remind the reader of the Jewish ceremony of placing the sins of the people on the head of the scapegoat, and leading him away into the wilderness, as described in the Old Testament (Leviticus, chap. xvi., 20 to 22), I know not; but after the many striking resemblances shown in a previous chapter between the Indians and the early Jews, this impression struck me very forcibly. On the same spot, however, on which these pagan rites were performed in 1813, there are not less than 28 Christian churches and 20,000 Christian worshippers in 1838. Such is the contrast produced in the short space of 25 years!

It was in 1815 that the first Christian church was formed in Rochester, and its whole body consisted of 16 members, who had to be drawn together from places many miles apart, while there was no other Christian congregation for worship at that time within 400 square miles of this spot.

From this period a gradual increase in the number of settlers took place at Rochester; and these being principally men from New-England, brought with them not only the hardy enterprise and industrious habits for which they have always been famed, but, what was still more valuable, those principles of morality and religion which constitute the most striking features of the New-England character. Under their auspices Rochester gradually rose from a hamlet to a village, and soon expanded from a village into a city. In 1818 its population was 331. In 1820 it was 1500. In 1825 it reached to 4274. In 1830 the state census gave 10,836. In 1835 it was nearly 15,000; and at present, in the middle of 1838, it numbers more than 20,000.

It was not until 1834 that Rochester became a chartered city; and its first mayor was Mr. Jonathan Child, a gentleman still residing here, and universally esteemed by his fellow-citizens. The following short extract from his inaugural address is perhaps without a parallel as to the fact it records, of the first hewers of the forest sitting at the council-board of a city reared on the same spot.

"The rapid progress which our place has made, from a wilderness to an incorporated city," said the mayor, "authorizes each of our citizens proudly to reflect upon the agency he has had in bringing about this great and interesting change. Rochester, we all know, has had little aid in its permanent improvement from foreign parts. It has been settled and built, for the most part, by mechanics and merchants, whose capital was economy, industry, and perseverance. It is their labour and skill which has converted a wilderness into a city; and to them surely this must be a day of pride and joy. They have founded and reared a city before they have passed the meridian of life. In other countries and times, the city of Rochester would have been the result of the labour and accumulation of successive generations; but the men who felled the forest that grew on the spot where we are assembled, are sitting at the council-board of our city. Well then may we indulge an honest pride as we look back upon our history, and let the review elevate our hopes and animate our exertions. Together we have struggled through the hardships of an infant settlement and the embarrassments of straitened cir-

cumstances, and together let us rejoice and be happy in the glorious reward that has crowned our labours."

In the following year, 1835, General Gould was chosen as the successor of Mr. Child; and at the close of his mayoralty a statement was made, which reflects the highest honour on the character of the city and its inhabitants. After referring to the great improvement and general prosperity of Rochester, the mayor said:

"Our city has also been remarkably distinguished for peace and good order, and happily delivered from the fire that devours the property, and from the pestilence that destroys the lives, of our citizens. During the period of my office, nearly two years, I wish it to be remembered as a most extraordinary, and to me most gratifying fact, that, with a population averaging 16,000, I have never been called upon to interfere, nor has there ever been occasion to do so, for the suppression of riot, mob, tumult, or even an ordinary case of assault. This fact speaks a most gratifying eulogy for our civil and religious institutions, and for the intelligence and morality of the community in which we live."

This fact is perhaps the most satisfactory answer that can be given to those who demand to know whether it is not the democracy of the American institutions which leads to all the mobs and riots that occur in the United States. On the contrary, it is chiefly in the aristocratic states of the South and West, where the white race hold the black in slavery, that mobs and riots most frequently occur. Even when they happen in the North and East, they are chiefly stimulated by the discussion of the great question of slavery or freedom, when those opposed to abolition, and not those in favour of it, take the lead in such riots, with a view to put down all freedom of discussion, and chain the tongues of the whites as well manacle the limbs of the blacks. It is therefore the Aristocratic, and not the Democratic, party that originate most of these outrages, as in the case of the abolition riots of New-York and Boston, and the still more recent burning down of the Pennsylvania Hall at Philadelphia. Here, at Rochester, where no riot of this description has ever yet been known, the general equality of condition among the inhabitants, and the prevailing state of opinion, is as democratic as can well be imagined, and far more so than in either of the places named; yet this democracy leads to no disturbance of the public order, because no one class arrogates to itself the right to suppress by force the freest expression of opinion by any other class, the attempt to do which, in the other parts of the Union, is the cause of nearly all the riots, burnings, and assassinations that occur: so that the perfect compatibility of good order and democratic principles is here triumphantly established.

Other striking benefits, which are the result of the democratic principles and practices that prevail here, where all men have a voice in the management of public affairs, and where the will of the majority, legitimately expressed, forms the acts of legislation, and superintends the due execution of the law, deserve to be enu-

merated. Among them are these: First, the universal encouragement of education, there being, in addition to several excellent seminaries for the children of the more wealthy, no less than 2554 who regularly attend the Sunday-schools of the different congregations, superintended by 508 Sunday-school teachers. Secondly, the absence of all theatres, circuses, and similar places of dissipated entertainment, which have never yet, though often attempted, been able to take root here. And, thirdly, the great progress of the temperance reformation, some details of which deserve to be given, as interesting to the friends of humanity in general.

"The first public resolutions ever adopted on the principle of *total abstinence* were passed by the Ontario Presbytery in August, 1827, but not without opposition, or without some claiming the liberty to 'treat their friends politely.' In October of that year, 5000 copies of Kittredge's First Temperance Address were printed at Canandaigua, about 1000 copies of which were distributed in and around Rochester. This was followed by a reprint of two editions, of 10,000 copies each, in the spring of 1828, in Rochester, the expense of which was defrayed by a few individuals, and these were sent in every direction, by mail, to governors, legislators, magistrates, and public institutions, and to distinguished persons in all parts of the land. These efforts are supposed to have been among the very earliest and most powerful causes in waking up the attention of this nation to the horrid evils of intemperance.

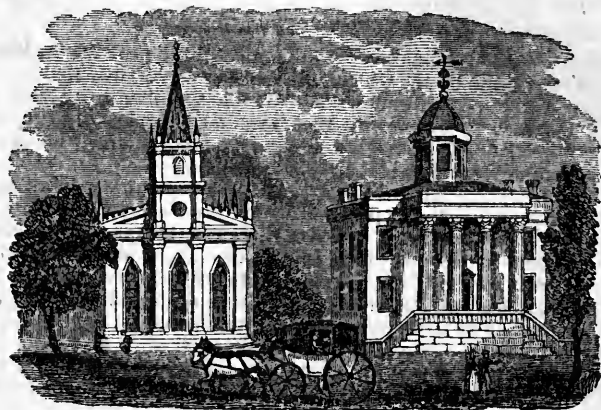
"The first public temperance meeting in Rochester was held, and a society formed, on the 21st of July, 1828. From this time the cause rapidly progressed, till public sentiment became strongly turned against that practice which makes beasts of men, and taxes their fellow-citizens for their support, seeing that our prisons and poorhouses are chiefly tenanted through the agency of grog-shops.

"It might also be noticed as an incident worthy of record, that Dr. Joseph Penney, for eleven years pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in Rochester, when called by ill health and family affairs to Europe, was the first to proclaim the true temperance principle in Ireland; and through his instrumentality the first efforts of a public nature were then commenced in that kingdom."

The inhabitants of Rochester, in consequence of the light thus obtained, are now almost unanimously of opinion that legislative measures should be taken to restrain the traffic in ardent spirits; and petitions have been numerous signed, praying the Legislature of the State of New-York to follow the noble example set by the State Legislatures of Tennessee and Massachusetts, to prohibit the sale of spirits in small quantities, and thus to put an end to grog-shops and places for the retail of the destructive and demoralizing poison entirely. May their benevolent efforts be crowned with success!

The plan of Rochester is not so regular as its recent origin and admirable situation would have led one to expect. It is seated along the banks of the Genesee River, which runs nearly from south to north in a slightly winding line through the town, being crossed by several bridges, and by a fine stone aqueduct on arches, conveying, above and across the river, the great trunk of the Erie

Canal. The greatest length of the city from north to south is about three miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west about two miles. The streets are spacious in breadth, varying from sixty to eighty feet, well paved in the centre and at the sides, and several good public squares are enclosed. The hotels, stores, dwellings, offices, and other buildings have a more solid and substantial air than in most of the new towns, being built of stone and brick more frequently than of wood. The churches are in general hand-



some structures, and the whole aspect of the place is that of one in which all that has been done is well done. It will thus form an excellent nucleus for the accumulation around it of the materials of a great future city.

The staple business of Rochester is the corn and flour trade, all the surrounding country being productive of the best wheat grown in the United States, and the water-power furnished by the falls of the Genesee River being capable of turning as many mills as can be erected on its banks. This water-power at the city of Rochester alone was estimated in 1825 to be about 20,000 cubic feet per minute, or equal to 2000 steam-engines of twenty horse-power each, and of the annual value of ten millions of dollars. But, when these calculations were made, the village of Rochester did not contain within its limits more than half the amount of water-fall which is now comprised within the more extended boundary of the city. Accordingly, on this account alone, the force and value of the water-power have been doubled. Add to this fact that, by a more skilful direction of this power, it is made in some of the higher falls to be used over and over again, to the extent, in some cases, of four times in one descent, and it may be fairly assumed that the annual value of the water-power capable of being brought into operation for the working of mills in the City of Rochester alone

is equal to a hundred millions of dollars; there being a series of descents, making in the whole 200 feet of fall within the city limits, while beyond those limits, along the whole valley of the Genesee, it is incalculable.

"This name, as expressive as is the generality of Indian designations, is indicative of the characteristics of the country through which the river flows. The word Genesee signifies Pleasant Valley. Few rivers of equal extent have scenery more picturesque; there are none with banks more fertile. From its rise in Pennsylvania till it mingles its waters with Lake Ontario, near the city of Rochester, the shores of the Genesee present a succession of beauties, such as in other lands would attract crowds of admiring travellers.*

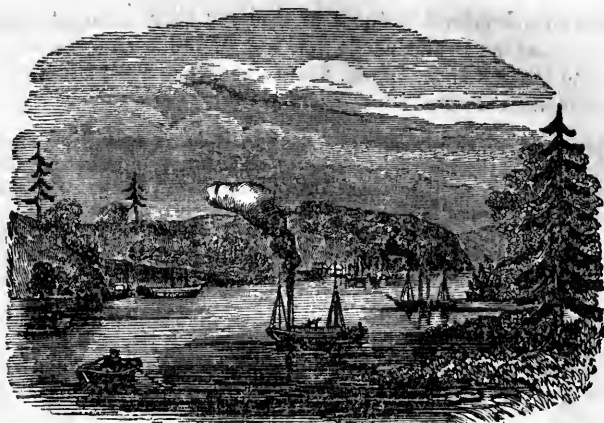
"The source is not less remarkable than the course of the Genesee. The table-land in which it originates is about 1700 feet above the Atlantic level, and furnishes, within a space of six miles square, streams which flow towards the ocean in opposite directions—through the St. Lawrence, the Chesapeake Bay, and the Gulf of Mexico. The bold and romantic features of its shores are strikingly exemplified in a brief portion of its course through Alleghany county in the State of New-York. Within a couple of miles the river is precipitated upward of three hundred feet. This great descent embraces three perpendicular pitches—the Falls of Nunda, presenting much of the sublime and beautiful—the ravine worn through the rock by the river (leaving perpendicular banks of from two to four hundred feet high) being scarcely less wonderful than the cataracts of the stream.

"Descending from the high lands of Alleghany, and emerging from between rocky banks of great height, the Genesee courses through a region of opposite character; a region unsurpassed in fertility, and replete with charms rivalling those with which poetry has invested the flowery meadows of Old England. Rarely does the eye rest upon a lovelier scene than the valley of this stream presents from the villages of Genesee or Mount Morris, which are built on declivities on either side of the flats. Here are the beauties of nature most harmoniously blended with the elements of agricultural wealth. At this portion of the Valley of the Genesee the prospect is bounded by the swelling uplands on either side, and the Alleghany hills in the southern distance. Had the Indians, who first gave this name to the valley, beheld the flocks and herds that now enliven its landscape, and the busy towns, with spires overlooking it from the neighbouring hills, the boats transporting its superabundant wealth down its winding stream, and the scenes of intellectual and moral felicity to which it contributes in the homes of its present enlightened occupants; and had they been able to appreciate all this, they would have contrived the longest superlative which their language could furnish to give it a name."

The beautiful scenery of this valley and its Falls has tempted many artists to transmit to the canvass some of its more striking features.

A son of the celebrated Benjamin West, named Raphael, came

* Perhaps no more striking instance can be given of the beauty of Indian names than that of a small bay on Lake Ontario, just at the mouth of the Genesee River, at a distance of a few miles only from Rochester. It is called *Te-o-ron-to*, which literally means, "The place where the waves breathe and expire," as they are first born within a few feet of the beach, and then, after breathing in two or three curling elevations, they break upon the beach and die!



out from London to visit the land of his father, and, though he did not remain long in the country, his London wife being homesick, and longing for the dingy atmosphere of Newman-street, which she preferred to the splendid forests and bright skies of America, yet he carried home with him some beautiful views of the scenery of this valley. Mr. Catlin, too, a brother of the celebrated artist who spent so many years among the Indians of the West, and who has formed so interesting a collection of their portraits, dresses, arms, &c., visited the Falls of the Genesee for the purpose of making drawings of it; but, venturing into a precipitous and difficult part of the rocks to get a more picturesque view, he was unfortunately drowned in the stream.

The Falls are undoubtedly very beautiful, both the middle and the lower. The first of these is nearly in the town, and the other about two miles to the north of it, while the upper Falls are about forty miles south of Rochester; but these we did not see. The height of the middle Falls is 96 feet perpendicular, and of the lower Falls 25 to the first leap, and 88 below it, the river being at both about a quarter of a mile across. It was from the first of these that the well-known Sam Patch made his fatal leap, and perished, the victim of his own folly. It is remarkable, however, that a fall from this great height is not always fatal, as the following incident, cut out of a Rochester paper during our stay there, will testify:

"SAM PATCH OUTDONE.—On Tuesday last, about two miles below the steamboat landing on the Genesee River, a horse, attached to a cart loaded with wood, was precipitated from the bank, cart and all, to the water's edge below, a distance of 75 feet, nearly perpendicular; when, after adjusting himself, he commenced browsing upon the shrubbery, without having received the least apparent injury."

The great defect under which both these Falls labour at present

is the want of that fulness of volume which gives so much grandeur to Niagara. Here, at Rochester, the vast quantity of water drawn off in different directions, for the use of various mills, has so diminished the depth of the stream that it falls over the perpendicular precipice of rock like a thin gauze veil; and a contrary wind, if blowing strongly, is sufficient to force it inward against the rock in a counter-curve to that of the bold projecting flow of Niagara's outward bend. To see these Falls under a full supply of water would be second only to Niagara, I think, for grandeur and beauty; and that such occasions now and then happen, may be assumed from the following statement as to the floods to which this river is occasionally subject:

"The greatest flood ever known in the Genesee River occurred in the fall of 1835. Nothing equal to it has happened within the knowledge of the earliest settlers in Rochester and its vicinity. Although it was unprecedented, it may find frequent parallels; for as the country becomes better cleared, the water (from the rain or thawing snow) will more suddenly find its way to the river than could be the case from wild land. The influence exercised on the character of many streams by the improvement of the country is a subject worthy of attention. The greatness of the flood of 1835 may be inferred from the fact, that the quantity of water which then passed was estimated at two millions one hundred and sixty-four thousand cubic feet per minute! Imagination may picture better than pen can describe the foaming and roaring of such a mighty flood, rushing over rapids and falls, forming at Rochester a descent about 100 feet higher than the perpendicular pitch of Niagara."

In addition to the extensive trade carried on in wheat and flour, there are many other branches of industry in a highly flourishing condition at Rochester. Among these the carpet manufacture ranks high. Scotch weavers and dyers have been carefully sought out, and brought here to conduct this manufacture; and already carpets, quite equal in quality and pattern to those of Kidderminster, are made here, and supplied to the surrounding cities. Woollen manufactories produce good cloths, in general use here for clothing. Fire-engines and rifles are made in great perfection. There are several tanneries and morocco-leather-dressing establishments. Paper-making is carried on extensively. There is an excellent piano-forte manufactory; and the demand for this instrument may be judged of from the fact that there was one in every parlour of the American Hotel at Buffalo, and some in the best bedrooms, to the extent of from 20 to 30 instruments in one house; while there is scarcely a family in the towns of America where a piano is not to be seen among their furniture.

The manufacture of edge-tools is going on so rapidly, and attaining such excellence here, that they will soon need no supply from Birmingham or Sheffield. Iron furnaces, and other works of iron machinery, are nearly as well executed as in England. Cabinet-making, boat-building, and cooperage are all better done here

than at home; and, in the few arts in which they are still behind us, ten or twenty years will make them our equals, and even a still shorter time, unless the legislators of England repeal the corn-laws, by which, if not soon taken off, England will be left behind in the race of manufactures by Germany, Switzerland, and America; and what is then to be the fate of her national debt and unemployed population it is fearful to anticipate!

Another branch of production and of industry will soon be introduced into this part of America, as it has been recently discovered that the valley of the Genesee is particularly adapted to the growth of silk; and, while the wild mulberry is found on the upper river and many of its branches, the various kinds of foreign mulberry trees, such as the Chinese, the Broussa, and the Italian, three of the most favourable for the silkworm, stand the comparatively mild climate of this valley without injury. Already active measures are in operation for the culture of silk in New-Jersey, and the State of New-York will soon follow it in this branch of production.

The soil of this valley, and of the surrounding country generally, is in the highest degree fertile. The base of it is calcareous, and in this the oak-trees take root; aluminous earth is found in portions, and there the elm, the beech, and the maple abound; and in other parts, where the soil is rich loam, silicious, or sandy, the pine, the hemlock, and the birch prevail. Of the adaptation of those parts of the soil already cleared to the growth of wheat, and of its consequent fertility and productiveness, the following facts are sufficient evidence:

"In 1835, Messrs. P. and G. Mills reaped from 27 acres on the Genesee Flats, near Mount Morris, 1270 bushels of wheat, or 47 bushels to the acre. In 1834 the same gentlemen reaped from 80 acres, 3200 bushels of wheat, being 40 bushels to the acre. The most beautiful field of corn we ever saw was in the summer of 1833, on the farm of W. C. Dwight, Esq., on the flats, a few miles above Genesee. There were 170 acres lying in one body, and from it he harvested 12,800 bushels of shelled corn. In 1834 the same gentleman had 20 acres of wheat, which averaged 48 bushels per acre, and two acres of the best of which produced 52 bushels per acre. The elevated country on the east and west of the river is scarcely inferior in the growth of wheat; the greatest amount we believe on record, as the well-authenticated product of a single acre, having been raised by Mr. Jirah Blackmore, of Wheatland, being 64 bushels per acre."

I have already mentioned the number of Christian churches in Rochester as 28. They are thus occupied: of the Presbyterians there are 8; of the Episcopalians, 3; of Baptists, 2; of Methodists, 2; Orthodox Friends, 1; Hicksites, 1; Reformed Presbyterians, 1; Evangelical, 1; Lutheran, 1; Roman Catholic, 2; Free-will Baptist, 1; Universalist, 1; Free Bethel Church, 1; Free Congregational Church, 1; African Church, 2. In addition to these establishments for the promotion of religious worship, there are several kindred associations, of which the following deserve mention:

The Monroe County Bible Society, Sabbath-school Union, Tract Society, Missionary Society, Home and Foreign Education Society, Charity Infant-school, Female Charitable Society, Orphan Asylum, Mechanics' Literary Association, Apprentice's Library, Young Men's Literary Association, the Rochester Athenæum, Phi-Beta-Gamma Society for the promotion of oratory and debating, Academy of Sacred Music, Mechanics' Musical Association, Temperance Societies, and Anti-Slavery Society. There is also a society for effecting the abolition of imprisonment for debt, and another for securing a general law for banking in opposition to the special legislation, which gave monopolies to particular corporations. These two important objects have been recently accomplished by law, and mainly in consequence of the labours of the two societies named.

Considering, therefore, that, thirty years ago, the spot on which Rochester stood was a forest, and that it now numbers among its institutions so many for the promotion of religion, charity, education, oratory, music, benevolence, and equitable legislation, it may challenge comparison with any city in the world for moral excellence, mental improvement, and social order.

If English towns of the same amount of population are examined for comparison with the Rochester of America, the following may be named. In England, Carlisle, Ipswich, Chester, Wigan, Yarmouth, and Southampton; in Scotland, Greenock and Perth; and in Ireland, Londonderry, Drogheda, and Clonmel, approach nearest in size to it. But in none of these will there be found more of commercial industry, more of general competency, nor so many institutions for the promotion of knowledge, morals, and religion; while in the sobriety of its population, and in the absence of theatres, taverns, and dramshops, it far surpasses them all; and in twenty years hence it bids fair to possess double its present wealth and population.

One of the most powerful agents in producing this prosperity in Rochester, next to the fertile lands by which it is surrounded, and the water-power which its river affords, has been the Erie Canal, which, passing immediately through the town and over the river by a noble aqueduct, makes Rochester the emporium of the inland trade between the Atlantic and the lakes. It is distant only ten miles from Lake Ontario, into which its own river empties, and by which it commands an easy intercourse with both the Canadas; while its canal leads on to Lake Erie, a distance of ninety-five miles, by which it connects itself with the navigation of all the Upper Lakes, and the vast extent of country to which these command access. Some notices, therefore, of the rise and progress of this great work, and of the difficulties which it had to overcome, will be appropriate here.

It is more than a century ago since the importance and facility of extending the water communications of this state were perceived

and appreciated by the surveyor-general of the country, then a British colony. Dr. Colden, who held that office, in a map published by him about a hundred years since, accompanying his History of the Five Indian Nations, then having their territory and hunting-grounds within what now constitutes the State of New-York, showed that the waters of the Hudson and the St. Lawrence very nearly approached each other by Lake George and Lake Champlain. He showed also that from the Atlantic to Lake Erie there was almost a continued chain of smaller lakes, such as the Oneida, Seneca, Cayuga, Otsego, Skaneateles, Canandaigua, Onondaga, Otisco, Oasko, Conesus, Hemlock, Honeoye, Chataque, Canaideraga, and the Canasoraga, which, with the rivers Mohawk, Susquehanna, Genesee, and other smaller streams, intersected the surface of the country in every direction, while the absence of any lofty chain of hills throughout the whole of the tract made the union of such streams and lakes by canal more easy than in less level regions.

In 1726, Governor Burnett erected a fort and trading-house where Oswego now stands, as a connecting link between the Hudson and Ontario; and in 1768, Governor Moore pressed on the attention of the Colonial Legislature the importance of improving the communication between the Mohawk and Ontario by means of a canal, referring as an example to the great canal of Languedoc in France, which connected the Atlantic and the Mediterranean; but it was not until the Revolution that the subject was fully understood, when Washington was himself the first to press it on public attention, as will be seen by the following statement of his accomplished biographer, Judge Marshall.

"To a person looking beyond the present moment and taking the future into view, it is only necessary to glance over the map of the United States to be impressed with the incalculable importance of connecting the Western with the Eastern territory, by facilitating the means of intercourse between them. To this subject the attention of Gen. Washington had been in some measure directed in the early part of his life. While the American States were yet British Colonies, he had obtained the passage of a bill, empowering those individuals who would engage in the work to open the Potomac so as to render it navigable from the tide to Wills's Creek. The James River had also been comprehended in his plan; and he had triumphed so far over the opposition produced by local interests and prejudices, that the business was in a train which promised success, when the Revolutionary war diverted the attention of its patrons, and of all America, from internal improvements to the great objects of liberty and independence. As that war approached its termination, subjects which for a time had yielded their pretensions to consideration, reclaimed that place to which their real magnitude entitled them; and the internal navigation again attracted the attention of the wise and thinking part of society.

"Accustomed to contemplate America as his country, and to consider with solicitude the interests of the whole, Washington now took a more enlarged view of the advantages to be derived from opening both the Eastern and Western waters; and for this, as well as for other purposes, after peace had been proclaimed, he traversed the western parts

of New-England and New-York. 'I have lately,' said he, in a letter to the Marquis of Chastelleux, a foreigner who was in pursuit of literary as well as of military fame, 'I have lately made a tour through the Lakes George and Champlain as far as Crown Point; then returning to Schenectady, I proceeded up the Mohawk River to Fort Schuyler [or Stanwix], crossed over to Wood Creek, which empties into the Oneida Lake, and affords the water-communication with Ontario. I then traversed the country to the head of the eastern banks of the Susquehanna, and viewed the Lake Otsego, and the portage between that lake and the Mohawk River at Canajoharie. Prompted by these actual observations, I could not help taking a more contemplative and extensive view of the vast inland navigation of these United States, and could not but be struck with the immense diffusion and importance of it, and with the goodness of that Providence who has dealt his favours with so profuse a hand. Would to God that we may have wisdom to improve them! I shall not rest contented until I have explored the Western country, and traversed those lines (or great part of them) which have given bounds to a new empire.'

"After returning from a journey westward as far as Pittsburgh in the same year, Washington immediately appealed to the Virginians to embark in an enterprise for improving the water-courses, so as to connect the East and West as intimately as possible; a matter which he deemed not more important in a commercial view than in a political aspect, seeing that the Spaniards then swayed the regions beyond the Mississippi, and controlled the outlet of that river. The navigable waters west of the Ohio towards the great lakes were also to be traced to their sources, and those which empty into the lakes to be followed to their mouths. 'Nature had made such an ample display of her bounties in those regions,' he said, 'that the more the country was explored, the more it would rise in estimation.'

"The influence of Washington was strenuously exerted to arouse Maryland to co-operate with Virginia in improving the navigation of the Potomac. He predicted the exertions which would doubtless be made by New-York and Pennsylvania for securing the monopoly of the Western trade, and the difficulty which would be found by Virginia in diverting it from the channel it had once taken. 'I am not for discouraging the exertions of any state to draw the commerce of the Western country to its seaports,' said the illustrious patriot. 'The more communications we open to it, the closer we bind THAT RISING WORLD (for indeed it may be so called) to our interests, and the greater strength shall we acquire by it. Those to whom nature affords the best communications will, if they are wise, enjoy the greatest share of the trade. All I would be understood to mean, therefore, is, that the gifts of Providence may not be neglected.' After enforcing the political necessity for improving the intercourse between the West and East, so as to prevent the flow of trade from the Western States to the mouth of the Mississippi, then held by the Spaniards, or through the St. Lawrence, controlled at its outlet by the British, he said, 'If then the trade of that country should flow through the Mississippi or the St. Lawrence; if the inhabitants thereof should form commercial connexions, which we know lead to intercourses of other kinds, they would in a few years be as unconnected with us as are those of South America. It may be asked, how are we to prevent this? Happily for us, the way is plain. Our immediate interests, as well as remote political advantages, point to it; while a combination of circumstances render the present time more favourable than any other to accomplish it. Extend the inland navigation of the Eastern waters; connect them as near as possible with those which run westward; open

these to the Ohio; open also such as extend from the Ohio towards Lake Erie, and we shall not only draw the produce of the Western settlers, but the peltry and fur-trade of the lakes also, to our ports; thus adding an immense increase to our exports, and binding those people to us by a chain which can never be broken.' "

Just before the Revolution, in 1772, a Mr. Christopher Colles, a native of Ireland, had given public lectures in Philadelphia on the subject of canal navigation, and the carrying water to higher or lower levels by means of locks; and about the same period he proposed supplying the City of New-York with good water by means of an aqueduct, and connecting the Hudson and the Ontario by means of canals. But, though he was a man of excellent character, a skilful mechanic, and a good mathematician, his plans, like those of Fulton for steam-navigation, were treated with ridicule and contempt, and he was called a "wild and visionary projector," the usual epithet applied by the ignorant and vulgar of England and France at the present day to all whose genius or enterprise is merely in advance of the common standard of minds to which these objectors belong.

Colles persevered, however, in his endeavours to enlist the Legislature in his views, and ultimately obtained their sanction to his plans; but he appears to have died, worn out probably by the vexatious opposition which he had so long encountered, before his views could be carried into execution. From this time onward, however, the subject grew in public estimation, and the minds of the most intelligent and influential men in the republic were occupied in advocating the improvement of internal communication, and devising means for effecting it; and among the various notices of their opinions and their labours, the following are worthy of record.

"Gouverneur Morris was among the earliest of those whose minds grasped with zealous energy the magnificent subject of internal improvements. The extraordinary adaptation of the country for canals between the Hudson and the Western lakes, with the political and commercial advantages to be derived from extensive inland water-communication, were early and enthusiastically proclaimed by that gifted man. While on a tour to Niagara Falls in 1800, his language to a European correspondent indicated that he comprehended well the vast navigable capacities of the country, even though he had then no conception of a communication like the Erie Canal. 'Hundreds of large ships will, in no distant period, bound on the billows of these inland seas,' was the language of Mr. Morris to his correspondent. 'Shall I lead your astonishment up to the verge of incredulity? I will. Know, then, that one tenth part of the expense borne by Britain in the last campaign, would enable ships to sail from London through the Hudson River into Lake Erie. As yet, we only crawl along the outer shell of our country. The interior excels the part we inhabit, in soil, in climate, in everything. The proudest empire of Europe is but a bawble compared to what America may be—must be.' "

The first intention appeared to have been to go by Lake George

and Lake Champlain into the St. Lawrence, or by Oswego into Lake Ontario, then to have a canal from Ontario round the Falls of Niagara, where the Welland Canal now is; but this idea was subsequently abandoned for the more advantageous line of a canal from Lake Erie to the Mohawk, from whence it was thought the river navigation could be continued to the Hudson. The length of this proposed canal was to be 200 miles, its breadth 100 feet, its depth 10 feet, and its estimated cost five millions of dollars, or about a million sterling. This was the plan of Mr. Hawley, of whom the following notice is given.

"It appears as if the Author of Nature, in forming Lake Erie, with its large head of water, into a reservoir, and the limestone ridge into an inclined plane," said Mr. Hawley, "had in prospect a large canal to connect the Atlantic and Continental seas, to be completed at some period by the ingenuity and industry of man." With reference to the recommendations of President Jefferson (in a message in 1807) concerning roads and canals, Mr. Hawley continued, "Next to the utility of a National Institute is the improvement of the navigation of our fresh waters, and connecting the waters of Lake Erie and those of the Mohawk and Hudson by means of a canal. As this project is probably not more than twelve months old in human conception, none but imperfect data can be furnished at present. The navigation of the four largest lakes in the world, with all their tributary streams, and the products of all the surrounding country, would pass through this canal; and even the fifth (Ontario) would become its tributary; and in twenty years the principal and interest of the expenditure would be redeemed." Then, glancing at the inevitable results of such a system successfully prosecuted, Mr. H. remarked that "The City of New-York would be left without a competitor in trade except by that of New-Orleans; and within a century its island would be covered with buildings; Albany would be necessitated to cut down her hills and fill her valleys, to give spread to her population; the harbour of Buffalo would exchange her forest for a thicket of marine spars; and Utica, if made the point of junction [of the proposed canal and the Mohawk River], would become a distinguished inland town." Rochester was not then in existence."

Ultimately the canal was completed from Albany to Buffalo, a distance of 363 miles, of much greater length than originally contemplated, but of less dimensions in breadth and depth, being 40 feet instead of 100, and four feet instead of ten; but that the first intended size was the best, is proved by the fact that it is now found necessary to increase the breadth of the canal to 70 feet and its depth to seven, to give the necessary accommodation to the constantly-increasing traffic of which it is the channel.

When the canal was completed its opening was marked by a public celebration of great magnificence, of which a very interesting account was published in a quarto volume, embellished with many engravings, at the expense of the Corporation of New-York, in which city I read it soon after my landing. The scene that occurred at Rochester on the boats passing through there is so characteristic of the fondness of the Americans for dramatic effect and display on such public occasions as these, that it is worth transcri-

bing. It is from the pen of Colonel Stone, who was charged by the Corporation with the duty of drawing up the narrative of the celebration, which is given as follows:

"At Rochester, a rich and beautiful town, which, disdaining, as it were, the intermediate grade of a village, has sprung from a hamlet to the full-grown size, wealth, and importance of a city, the interesting period was celebrated in a manner equally creditable to the country and the occasion. There was considerable rain at Rochester on the day of the celebration; yet such was the enthusiasm of the people, that at two o'clock eight handsome uniform companies were in arms, and an immense concourse of people had assembled. The companies were formed in line upon the canal, and on the approach of the procession of boats from the West commenced firing a *feu de joie*, which was continued until they arrived at the aqueduct, where the boat called the 'Young Lion of the West' was stationed to 'protect the entrance.' The Pioneer boat was hailed from the Young Lion, and the following dialogue ensued:

"Question. Who comes here?

"Answer. Your brothers from the West, on the waters of the great Lakes.

"Q. By what means have they been diverted so far from their natural course?

"A. By the channel of the Grand Erie Canal.

"Q. By whose authority, and by whom was a work of such magnitude accomplished?

"A. By the authority and by the enterprise of the patriotic people of the State of New-York.

"Here the 'Young Lion' gave way, and 'the brethren from the West' were permitted to enter Child's Basin, at the end of the aqueduct. The Rochester and Canandaigua committees of congratulation then took their places under an arch surmounted by an eagle, and the 'Seneca Chief,' having the committees on board, being moored, General Vincent Matthews and the Hon. John C. Spencer ascended the deck, and offered to the governor the congratulations of the citizens of their respective villages, to which an animated and cordial reply was given. The gentlemen from the West then disembarked, and a procession was formed, which proceeded to the Presbyterian Church, where an appropriate prayer was made by the Rev. Mr. Penney, and an address pronounced by Timothy Childs, Esq. The address of Mr. Childs was an able and eloquent performance, clothed with 'words that breathe and thoughts that burn.' It was listened to with almost breathless silence, and greeted at its close with three rounds of animated applause. The celebration was concluded with a grand ball, and a general illumination, and nothing occurred to mar the pleasure of the day."

After all, however, the love of dramatic effect and display is not peculiar to the Americans; for in the public fêtes given in Paris, in the lord-mayor's processions and dinners in London, in the masonic ceremonies of laying the foundation of new bridges, and opening railways and other public works in England, just as much pomp and parade are to be seen; to say nothing of the pomp and pageantry of a coronation, which some even of our most intelligent peers are beginning to perceive, is better adapted to a feudal age than that in which we live.

In the present instance, at least, there is enough of substantial good to counterbalance all the shadowy parade of the celebration, as by the opening of this canal a line of direct navigation has been completed for upward of 2600 miles, of which the following are the stages:

	Miles.
New-York to Albany by the Hudson River	150
Albany to Buffalo by the Erie Canal	363
Buffalo to Cleveland by Lake Erie	200
Cleveland to Portsmouth by canal	309
Portsmouth to Cincinnati by the Ohio River	113
Cincinnati to New-Orleans by the Mississippi	1500
	<hr/> 2635

and when to these constantly-frequented routes are added the new channels to more distant towns upon the upper lakes, to Mackinaw, and along the higher Mississippi to St. Anthony's Falls, as well as on the Missouri, the Arkansas, the Tennessee, and even the Sabine River, which last has lately been navigated by steam up to the very heart of Texas, it may be confidently asserted that not less than 10,000 miles of navigable length has been opened and made accessible from the Atlantic by means of the Erie Canal, the opening of which, therefore, deserved a public celebration, as forming an epoch in the history of the commerce and prosperity of the country.

CHAPTER XX.

Geological Peculiarities of Rochester.—Ridge-road, formerly the Margin of Lake Ontario.—Boulders of Primitive Rock.—Successive Order of Strata and Fossil Remains.—Singular Cavity of Pebbles in Bituminous Shale.—Polished Rocks of the Falls.—Parallel Case at the Cataracts of the Nile.—Climate of the Western Portion of this State.—Brightness of American Skies.—Splendour of Autumnal Sunsets.—Causes assigned for this, the Mirrors of the Lakes.—Public Baths.—Mineral Springs.—Public Walks.—Cemetery.—Hackney-coaches.—Mails.—Increase of Postoffice Revenue.—Negro Population.—Military Parades of Militia Troops.—Comparison with the Army of England.—Sanada Thistle and Locust-borer.—Fettigonia Septendecem.—Newspapers.—Agricultural Journal.

THE geological peculiarities in the neighbourhood of Rochester will gratify all those who have any knowledge of, or taste for that deeply-interesting study. Among the principal of these may be named an elevation called the Ridge-road, formed of sand and shingle, thrown up from a lake or sea, resembling exactly the formation of a sea-beach, and being believed to be the ancient margin of the Lake Ontario, though now 160 feet above the level of that lake, and distant inland from its southern edge several miles. It has been observed, too, that from this Ridge-road southward

towards Rochester, and all the way to the middle falls of the Genesee, immense masses of fossil shells and marks of the attrition of water are found at the same level as the road itself, proving the deposit and action of this element in ages gone by. On the subject of boulders, or large masses of primitive rock, found remote from their original position, as in the Alps and Jura mountains, the following statement is made:

"Boulders of the primitive rocks lie scattered over this state and far to the West. No layers of rocks like them are found for a great distance. The supposition of their formation in the places where they lie cannot find any support. They must have been transported from distant regions. Their rounded and worn form shows the attrition of the tumbling waters and rolling sands. How could they have been removed? Though the difficulties of the subject may not be all removed, and the action of a cause operating with more power than we are familiar with may be judged necessary, yet the following considerations may lessen these difficulties in some degree. Currents of water act with great power. The flood of a river has moved along large rocks of some tons weight many rods in a day. Deeper currents would have a greater effect. Ice occasionally transports masses of stone down the streams. Again, the specific gravity of these rocks is little more than twice that of water. Nearly half the weight of rocks would be supported by the upward pressure of fresh water, and more still by that of salt water, giving great advantage to the action of powerful currents. Here is a mighty power, adequate to the production at least of great effects. The power of water and ice, operating on a great scale, would seem to be amply sufficient for the transference of these boulders. A large boulder of granite has been mentioned. Some as large, and one a little larger, are in the east part of Ogden, seven miles west of Rochester. Near the same place is a large boulder of saccharine limestone, the only considerable mass of this rock which has occurred to me. More than one hundred feet up the pinnacle, a little southeast of Rochester, lies a boulder of graywacke of great size, ten and a half feet long, ten feet wide, and three to four feet deep."

The classification of rocks and strata, beginning from the level of Lake Ontario, and passing upward through the valley of the Genesee River, is arranged in the following order:

1. Red sandstone, which extends below the water to an unknown depth, and above the water about 120 feet. *Fucoides* and other vegetable remains are found in this sandstone in great abundance, from twelve to twenty-five feet below the upper surface.

2. Mountain limestone, often semi-crystalline, and affording beautiful marble. It contains abundance of encrinites, madrepores, productus, and trilobites.

3. Argillaceous slate, twenty-three feet thick, of a greenish hue; it lies below a stratum of iron ore, and near this are the impressions of shells seen in the stone. Above the iron ore is another layer of the same kind of slate, but of a lighter green; and at a height of thirty-one feet above the ore are seen two layers of fossil shells, each three or four inches thick, composed almost wholly of small pearls and beautiful *terrebratulites*.

4. Argillaceous iron ore, about a foot in thickness. This layer is so extensive that it comes to the surface a few miles west of Utica, 150 miles east of this spot, where it is smelted, and yields about thirty-three per cent. of iron. Fossil shells, encrinites, and pentacrinites abound also in this deposit.

5. Ferriferous sand-rock, rising about ten feet above the iron ore. This is a composition of limestone and fine grains of ferriferous quartz, making it a flinty rather than a sandy limestone, and forming a close-grained and hard stone for building. In some layers of this stone chalcedony and carnelian have been found in masses; and pyritous copper, carbonate of copper, and native copper have been found in the rock by blasting it.

6. Calciferous slate, or second graywacke. This layer abounds with shells, especially pentamerus; and in a blue slaty limestone, just above this, the stratum of which is forty feet thick, are found trilobites, as the *asaphus caudatus*, with and without tails, like the figures of this species described in Buckland's Geology. Nearer up towards the Falls bituminous shale presents itself, in a layer of fifty feet thick, with masses of gypsum, subcrystalline, as at the Falls of Niagara, the level of both being nearly the same: that of Niagara being 266 feet, and this of the Genesee being 232 feet above Lake Ontario.

In July of the last year, 1837, while the workmen were splitting this rock for the purposes of building, a large cavity was found nearly filled with pebbles, to the quantity of about six quarts, formed of quartz, hornblende, limestone, sandstone, graywacke, and mica slate, with fragments of recent shells. The cavity was entirely covered by the solid rock, so that the pebbles, which, like the cavity itself, bore all the marks of attrition by water, were here collected together before the limestone rock that closed them in was deposited by the water upon them. The pebbles vary in size from an eighth of an inch to two inches in length, and are all smoothly rounded by the long action of water.

Another geological curiosity is found in what are called the polished rocks, the flat surfaces of which give evidence of the action of water, and in some instances of the friction of other substances over them. The following description of these, from the pen of Professor Davey, will be read with interest:

"The surface of the rocks of Rochester is in many places polished, as if they had been worn and rubbed down by the friction of sand and stones borne over them. The surface of the geodiferous rock, through which the Erie Canal was cut about a quarter of a mile east of the Genesee, was found polished; thence north it has been found polished in several places to a point twenty rods below the Middle Falls. On the west side of the river, near the Bethel Church, the Erie Canal is on polished rock. At the depôt of the Tonawanda (or Rochester and Batavia) Railroad, and at three miles west of the city, the railroad was cut through polished stone for eighty to one hundred rods. The same has been

found in several intervening places. At the Rapids a large surface polished has been laid bare this year (1837) in excavating the Genesee Valley Canal. In some places the polish has only begun; the hollows are passed over: in most it is very perfect. Lines or furrows are marked on the polished surface from northeast to southwest, as if great stones had been moved on it. On the east side of the river, at Rochester, these lines are more nearly east and west. The polish has so manifestly been carried from one elevation to another, or over the hollows, that it removes all doubt of the artificial nature of the work. When it was done, and how it could have been done, are interesting inquiries. That the present earth and soil upon it was removed to its present position, and deposited on the polished surface, is certain. To make an adequate impression of the fineness of the polish on this limestone, it is only necessary to remark that it is fine and glossy, like the artificial polish of marble. Professor Hall, one of the state geologists, found the polished limestone at the West in Ogden and on Niagara River."

In examining these polished rocks, of which we saw a great number, both at the Falls, and above and below them, I was reminded of the extraordinary degree of polish given to the surface of the granite rocks at the Cataracts of the Nile, and undoubtedly by the same cause, the action of the water, of which the following description is given in my unpublished MS. journal, kept on the Nile in December, 1814.

"In some of the hollows, worn by the annual friction of whirlpool when the Nile is at its height, a bed of soil has been deposited, from which has sprung up young trees, plants, and bushes, the isolated verdure of which derives a higher charm from the surrounding contrast, and makes them seem like little Edens encompassed by a wilderness. The very rocks themselves, too, exhibit all the varieties of form and colour possible to be conceived, while their adamantine surfaces, unshattered by the stream, have a *smoothness of polish* which art could never give to them; and by the infinite variety of their positions, they reflect back the rays of an unclouded sun from every point like a thousand mirrors. If one of these stones only had been met with in any other situation, it would be difficult to persuade one's self that they were not covered with some transparent varnish."

This resemblance between the polished rocks of the Cataracts of the Nile and the Falls of the Genesee is very striking, though the smoothness and brilliance of the former is much greater than that of the latter.

We were accompanied in our excursion along the banks of the river and to the Falls by Mr. O'Reilly, whose practical acquaintance with all the localities made him a most valuable guide, and whose conversation was a running commentary on his excellent book, to both of which we were largely indebted for the information they conveyed, as well as for the mineralogical and fossil specimens we were enabled to collect.

The climate of this portion of the State of New-York is remark-

able for being more temperate than the eastern portion bordering on the sea. There are, no doubt, everywhere throughout the Continent of America very hot summers and extremely cold winters; but the degree of intensity in both is less here than elsewhere in the same parallel of latitude. President Dwight, of New-England, who had bestowed much attention on this subject, entertained an opinion that in this country, and he thought in most others, there was a circuit of seasons, which came in periods of ten or fifteen years: that is, there were ten or fifteen warm summers, and then the same number of cool ones, and ten or fifteen severe winters; and then the same number of mild ones; and the son of the president, whom I had seen at New-York, told me that his own experience confirmed the accuracy of his father's supposition. President Dwight considers the cause of the peculiar mildness of temperature by which the western part of New-York is characterized to be the vicinity of the great lakes, and on this subject he thus expresses himself:

"It has been extensively agreed by modern philosophers, that the two great causes of a mild temperature are nearness to the shore and proximity to the level of the ocean. Those countries which border on the ocean are, almost without an exception, warmer than central countries in the same latitude; and those which are little raised above its surface are regularly warmer than such as have a considerable elevation. Mr. Volney, however, with that promptness of decision for which he has long been remarkable, found, as he believed, satisfactory evidence that this opinion is groundless in the climate of the regions bordering on the Lakes Erie and Ontario. This climate he asserts to be milder than that of the shore in the same latitude, where it is scarcely raised above the ocean. Yet the tract which enjoys this mild temperature is elevated, and distant from the sea. The premises here assumed are undoubtedly true, but the consequence does not follow. The lakes have the same influence here which the ocean has elsewhere. The elevation above them is so small, and the distance from them so short, that the full influence of both advantages is completely felt. Among the proofs that this is a true explanation of the subject, it is only necessary to observe that the southeastern parts of the county of Genesee, the counties of Steuben, Tioga, Delaware, and Greene, are sensibly colder than those immediately south of Lake Ontario. It ought, perhaps, to be observed here, that countries on the eastern side of a continent are regularly colder in winter and hotter in summer than those on the western. The reason is obvious. In the temperate zones, at least in the northern, the prevailing winds are from the west. Eastern shores, therefore, have their winds chiefly from the land, and western shores enjoy the softer breezes of the ocean. As the winters are mild in the part under consideration, so are the summers. It is not often the fact that people here are willing to sleep without a blanket."

Our own experience, and the opinions of all whom we consulted here on this subject, corroborated the accuracy of this view; for both at Buffalo and at Rochester the heat of the month of August was five or six degrees less by the thermometer than at New-York and Albany at the same period of time, while the freshness

of the air from the Lakes Erie and Ontario made the difference in the feeling of heat at least ten degrees less ; that is, with the thermometer at 80° in either of these places, persons would feel no more inconvenience from heat than they would at Philadelphia with the thermometer at 70° ; and in each of the towns of Buffalo and Rochester, throughout the month of August, we slept under a blanket, and found it comfortable ; while in all the seaboard cities, and from New-York to Saratoga, during the whole of June and July, we found a single sheet as much as we could bear, with all the windows open, and here a sheet, blanket, and counterpane were not found too much. A very characteristic extract of a letter is preserved from Gouverneur Morris to a friend of his in England, who had often urged him to come over and reside in some part of Britain, which the former had always resisted ; but at length finding it necessary to support his refusal by adequate reasons, he says to his friend :

“ Compare the uninterrupted warmth and splendour of America, from the first of May to the last of September, and her autumn, truly celestial, with your shivering June, July, and August ; sometimes warm, but often wet ; your uncertain September, your gloomy October, and detestable November. Compare these things, and then say how a man who prizes the charms of nature can think of making the exchange. If you were to pass one autumn with us, you would not give it for the best six months to be found in any other country, unless, indeed, you should get tired of fine weather.”

It is undoubtedly true that the climate of America, as far as we have yet experienced it, and we have now passed very nearly through an entire year, is much more pleasurable to the sight and feelings than the climate of England. Whether it be as favourable to health and longevity may be doubted ; although there are other circumstances, and particularly that of the diet and mode of life among Americans, which may sufficiently account for their inferior health, without regarding the agency of the climate as in any degree contributing towards it. But the brightness of the American winters, with a brilliant and glowing sun beaming from a cloudless sky, while the surface of the earth is covered with snow, and the gay and lively equipage of sleighs, with the warm buffalo skin and furs of the closely-wrapped party, and the jingling bells of the delighted horses, glide along the streets and roads, makes the season far more cheerful than a winter ever is in England.

The spring is shorter, for summer seems to burst at once upon the eye ; and when it comes, the full and gorgeous foliage of the woods, and the exuberant luxuriance of the fields, give an idea of abundance and fertility which is delightful. The autumn, however, is the most delightful season ; and the very finest days of an English September or October are inferior, in the richness and glow of their mellow atmosphere, to the weather of these two

months in America; while the sunsets of the autumn here surpass those even of Italy and Greece. On this subject, the following beautiful and accurate description of Mr. Gaylord, a resident of Otisco, in Onondaga county, in this state, is worth transcribing:

"Foreign tourists speak with rapture of the beautiful dyes imprinted by autumn on the foliage of our American forests: our leaves do not fade and fall all of the same decaying russet hue, but the rich golden yellow of the linden, the bright red of the soft maple, the deep crimson of the sugar maple, the pale yellow of the elm, the brown of the beech, and the dark green of the towering evergreens, are all blended into one splendid picture of a thousand light shades and shadows. To the observer, our autumnal woodlands are gigantic parterres, the flowers and colours arranged in the happiest manner for softened beauty and delightful effect. And when these myriads of tinted leaves have fallen to the earth; when the squirrel barks from the leafless branches, or rustles among them for the ripened but still clinging brown nuts, the rural wanderer is tempted to throw himself on the beds of leaves accumulated by the wind, and, while he looks through the smoke-tinted atmosphere, half imagines that he is gazing on an ocean of flowers.

"But the claims of our American autumn upon our admiration are very far from depending entirely on the rainbow-coloured foliage of our woodlands, unrivalled in beauty though they certainly are; to these must be added the splendours of an autumn sunset, the richness of which, as we are assured, has no parallel in the much-lauded sunsets of the rose-coloured Italian skies. In no part of the United States is this rich garniture of the heavens displayed in so striking a manner as in the valley of the great lakes, and the country immediately east or southeast of them, and this for reasons which will shortly be assigned. The most beautiful of these celestial phenomena begin to appear about the first of September, sometimes rather earlier, and, with some exceptions, last through the months of September and October, unless interrupted by the atmospheric changes consequent on our equinoctial storms, and gradually fade away in November with the Indian summer and the southern declination of the sun. Not every cloudless sunset during this time, even in the most favoured sections, is graced with these splendours; there seems to be a very peculiar state of the atmosphere necessary to exhibit these beautiful reflections, which, however often witnessed, must excite the admiration of all who view them, and are prepared to appreciate their surprising richness.

"On the most favoured evenings the sky will be without a cloud; the temperature of the air pleasant; not a breeze to ruffle a feather; and a dim transparent haze, tinged of a slight carmine by the sun's light, diffused through the whole atmosphere. At such a time, for some minutes both before and after the sun goes below the horizon, the rich hues of gold, and crimson, and scarlet that seem to float upward from the horizon to the zenith, are beyond the power of language to describe. As the sun continues to sink, the streams of brilliance gradually blend and deepen into one mass of golden light, and the splendid reflections remain long after the light of an ordinary sunset would have disappeared. We have said that not every cloudless sunset exhibits this peculiar brilliance: when the air is very clear, the sun goes down in a yellow light, it is true, but it is comparatively pale and limited; and when, as is sometimes the case in our Indian summers, the atmosphere is filled with the smoky vapour arising from a thousand burning prairies in the Far West, he sinks like an immense red ball, without a single splendid emanating ray. It is our opinion that the peculiar state

of the atmosphere necessary to produce these gorgeous sunsets in perfection is in some way depending on electrical causes; since it very commonly happens that, after the brilliant reflections of the setting sun have disappeared, the auroral lights make their appearance in the north; and usually, the more vivid the reflection, the more beautiful and distinct the aurora. This fact, the numerous and splendid northern lights of last September succeeding to sunsets of unrivalled beauty, must have rendered apparent to every observer of these atmospheric changes. Connected, however, with this state of the atmosphere, and co-operating with it, is another cause we think not less peculiar and efficient, and which we do not remember ever to have seen noticed in this connexion, and that is the influence of the great lakes acting as reflecting surfaces.

"Every one is acquainted with the fact that, when rays of light impinge or fall on a reflecting surface, as a common mirror, they slide off, so to speak, in a corresponding angle of elevation or depression, whichever it may be. The great American lakes may in this respect be considered as vast mirrors, spread horizontally upon the earth, and reflecting the rays of the sun that fall upon them, according to the optical laws that govern this phenomenon. The higher the sun is above the horizon, the less distance the reflected rays would have to pass through the atmosphere, and, of course, the less would be the effect produced by them; while at and near the time of setting, the rays striking horizontally on the water, the direction of the reflected rays must of course be so also, and therefore pass over or through the greatest possible amount of atmosphere previous to their final dispersion. It follows that objects on the earth's surface, if near the reflecting body, require but little elevation to impress their irregularities on the reflecting light; and hence any considerable eminences on the eastern shores of the great lakes would produce the effect of lessening or totally intercepting these rays at the moment the sun was in a position nearly or quite horizontal. The reflecting power of a surface of earth, though far from inconsiderable, is much less than that of water, and may in part account not only for the breaks in the line of radiance which exist in the West, but for the fact that the autumnal sunsets of the South are inferior in brilliance to those of the North. The atmosphere of the North is open to the influence of reflected light from the lakes, and we are convinced that most of the resplendent richness of our autumnal sunsets may be traced to this source. The successive flashes of golden and scarlet light, that seem to rise, and blend, and deepen in the west as the sun approaches the horizon and sinks below it, can in no other way be so satisfactorily accounted for as by the supposition that each lake, one after the other, lends its reflected light to the visible portion of the atmosphere, and thus, as one fades, another flings its mass of radiance across the heavens, and, acting on a medium prepared for its reception, prolongs the splendid phenomena."

I can bear my testimony to the fidelity of this description, and may add that, though the autumnal sunsets of America are everywhere beautiful, I had never yet seen any to compare with those which we had witnessed in Buffalo and Rochester, in the vicinity of the lakes. Neither in the East Indian nor Mediterranean Seas, neither in the Arabian nor the Persian Gulf, where the sunsets are often glowing and beautiful, do I ever remember to have seen such exquisitely golden skies, or such beautifully pencilled rays streaming from the sun after it had sunk beneath the horizon, in alter-

nate radii of pink and palest blue, as here; and I should think a month passed in this western region abundantly repaid by the enjoyment of the autumnal sunsets alone.

Among the useful public accommodations which we observed in Rochester were public baths, both of mineral springs and pure water, which it is agreeable to see multiplying in the cities of the United States, as conducive to health, cleanliness, and pleasurable recreation. A large piece of ground immediately overlooking the principal Falls of the Genesee, and called the Falls Promenade, is about to be laid out as a public walk and garden, and will be a fine ornament to the town. A large piece of ground on the east of the river and south of the city, seated on a pleasing eminence, has also been recently devoted to the purpose of a public cemetery, to supersede all the smaller ones; and the intention is to plant it with ornamental shrubs and lay it out in walks, so as to make it as agreeable as Laurel Hill at Philadelphia, or Mount Auburn at Boston. The public convenience of hackney-coaches exists at Rochester, though there are none at Buffalo; and so rapidly are communications increasing from this place to the surrounding cities, that though in 1812, when the first mail was established, it only left the postoffice twice in the week, there are now no less than ten different mails despatched in various directions every day; and the postoffice receipts, which for the first quarter were only three dollars forty-two cents, are now four thousand dollars for the same period of time.

Among the minor peculiarities of Rochester, we remarked that there were fewer people of colour seen in the streets than in any town we had visited. At Buffalo there are very few negroes or mulattoes; but the great numbers of dark-complexioned Indians of the Seneca tribe constantly seen in the streets supply the place of the Africans, in giving a mixed appearance to the population. But in Rochester we did not see a single Indian, and certainly not half a dozen Africans, during all our stay there; and the Eagle was the first hotel at which we had ever stopped since our landing in America in which there were no coloured servants, male or female. There are thought to be some three hundred persons of colour in the whole town; but in a population of twenty thousand persons these become so scattered as hardly to be perceptible in the crowd.

During our stay at Buffalo and at Rochester, it was the period of the year in which the state law requires the calling out and exercise of the militia, so that there were every day parades, marches, and evolutions of that body. To an English eye, accustomed to the perfect discipline of the regular troops of the line, whose daily exercise gives to all their movements such admirable precision, these reviews of the American militia furnished a very inferior military spectacle, and would, most probably, have been viewed with contempt by some of our martinets at home.

But their imperfections at drill were all counterbalanced in my mind by the consideration that in this country, where every county and town furnishes its quota to the national militia, there is no large standing army used for the purpose of overawing the people, and maintained by the labours of those they are called on to guard. In the day of need, however, these voluntarily organized troops have generally done their duty in the face of more veteran soldiers, and have been found able to repel invaders from their shores. But even in point of discipline and appearance, inferior as undoubtedly they are to the royal troops which are occasionally reviewed at Hyde Park or Wimbledon, they were quite equal, if not superior, to the numerous volunteer regiments of England, which were imbodied throughout the kingdom at the period of Bonaparte's threatened invasion of Britain; and in any encounter with the enemy I have no doubt they would have done their duty equally well, as animal courage is as much an American as it is a British quality. In this they are as nearly equal as children of the same fathers might be expected to be.

Among the destroying causes which are already in operation at Rochester, and throughout the western part of the State of New-York, are two that deserve mention. One is the Canada thistle, which passed over from Canada to the United States about twenty years ago, and is now gradually extending itself southward with the regularity of an appointed march. Its seeds are blown from the plants to the soil around and in advance of them, and they now spread over all the northern part of the state, producing greater injury to the soil and cultivation than any cause that has been remembered for some time; and the farmers allege that all their efforts to root them up and prevent their spread have hitherto proved ineffectual.

The other agent of destruction is an insect, called here the borer, a small worm, of which a large colony first made themselves known in the eastern part of this state about ten years ago, by boring holes into the bark and through the wood of the locust-tree, leaving on the outside small heaps of the dust, to which they reduce the bark and wood by their perforations. Their progress westward has been so gradual and steady that there has been no one year in which they have not gone farther West than in the preceding. They attacked the locust-trees only; but these they so effectually destroyed, that it is believed by many here that in fifty years hence there will not be a single locust-tree left. So gradual are the depredations of these creatures, that the trees in the east part of Rochester were attacked two years before those in the west; and in every instance, where streets running north and south are lined with locust-trees, those on the east side of the street have been first perforated, before the slightest injury was visible in those on the west.

Among the novelties of animated nature which we saw here were two remarkable zoophytes, one of which was like a leaf rolled up and filled with fluid, all the anatomy of the leaf being beautifully developed, and the creature thus formed appearing to be a worm of about two inches in length and one inch in circumference, with nothing but the outer coating, formed apparently of a vegetable leaf, and an inner mass of moving and animated matter, but without organs of respiration or sight, and, indeed, without even a visible aperture at either extremity. It had a power of slow locomotion, but seemed more nearly allied to the vegetable kingdom in appearance, though evidently belonging to the animal kingdom by its functions. The other was a large insect, which was composed of a long body and six long legs, each about two inches long, and not thicker than a stalk of ordinary grass. Being all of a bright green, it looked like the stems of some plant or leaf; but, on examining it, a perfect and uniform disposition of the parts could be seen; and it had powers of locomotion which it used, though there was no appearance of intestinal organization, or of respiratory or visual organs, as far as we could discover. They were both as new to persons here as to myself, and were the only ones seen.

Among the curiosities of animated nature, however, the most remarkable thing that I remember, connected with the natural history of America, is the account given by Mr. Latrobe of the insect of the *Cicada* tribe, called the *Tettigonia septendecim*, from the fact of its appearing in Pennsylvania and Maryland every seventeenth year, and being wholly unknown in the country except at that period. It was first observed to appear in May, 1749; seventeen years afterward it reappeared, in May, 1766; again in May, 1783; again in May, 1800; again in May, 1817; and, lastly, in May, 1834. It lives but a few days; but, during that short period, its numbers are so great as to cover all the trees, and fill the air with a low distinct hum, which is compared to "the simmering of an enormous caldron." A remarkable part of their history is, that "during the whole period of their existence, the closest attention does not detect their eating anything, and, with the exception of the slight injury received by the trees consequent on the females laying their eggs upon the twigs and leaves, they are perfectly innoxious."

This laying of their eggs begins to take place within a few days after their first appearance; and, when that is done, the object of their existence seems to be terminated; the male and female both become weak, lose their power of utterance, become blind, fall to the ground by myriads, and in ten or fifteen days they all perish. The eggs soon after produce grubs; these find their way down to the mould, and there, perforating a path to the depths of the earth, they entirely disappear for a period of seventeen years. In digging wells and foundations many of them have been found ten or twelve

feet under the ground ; but when the month of May, in the seventeenth year after their last appearance, returns, though in the interval streets should have been laid out, houses built, and pavements laid upon the soil which covers them, up they come, as if by one common impulse, at their appointed time, "piercing their way through the matted sod, through the hard-trampled clay of the pathways, through the gravel between the joints of the stones and pavements, and into the very cellars of the houses, like their predecessors, to be a marvel in the land, to sing their blithe song of love and enjoyment under the bright sun and amid the verdant landscape ; like them, to fulfil the brief duties of their species, and close their mysterious existence by death."

Perhaps the most interesting and valuable collection of facts connected with the natural history, botany, mineralogy, and geology of the State of New-York, is to be found in the weekly periodical published here, under the title of "The Genesee Farmer," which may be called the Agricultural Journal of North America, and is one of the best-arranged and best-conducted publications of the kind that I have ever seen. This is in addition to the two daily newspapers, the Rochester Democrat, which is the Whig organ, and the Daily Advertiser, which is the Democratic organ, each having its weekly and semi-weekly abridgment for country circulation, and each being conducted with all the characteristic features of blind partisanship ; seeing everything good in the measures of one set of men, and everything bad in the measures of another set ; and not allowing the existence of any error on their own side, nor any truth on that of their opponents.

The "Genesee Farmer," however, avoiding all politics, and confining itself to agriculture and the varied branches of knowledge which can illustrate or advance the improvement of the natural productions of the earth, is a work which will be read a century hence with as much interest as now, and would be as acceptable to the student of nature in Paris or London as in Washington or New-York. This excellent publication, with the illustrative report on the geology of the state recently issued, and the sketches of Rochester by Mr. O'Reilly, leave nothing to be desired on the peculiar branches of information on which they treat, and are alike honourable to the parties by whom they were written and compiled, as useful to the community, and creditable to the intelligence and well-directed inquiries of the state.

CHAPTER XXI.

Journey from Rochester to Canandaigua.—Stay at.—Canandaigua an Indian Name.—Munificent Grant for the Support of Education.—Canandaigua Academy.—Ontario Female Seminary.—Military Lands awarded to Soldiers of the Revolution.—Classical Names within this Tract.—Singular Names of Indian Chiefs.—Northern and Southern Tribes.—Reserve Lands and Annuities.—Remains of ancient Indian Forts.—Narrative of the "White Woman," Wife of an Indian Chief.—Diseases among the Aborigines.—Conduct of the Whites to Indians.—Climate of Canandaigua.—Waterspout on the Lake.—Democratic Convention.—Newspapers.—Stage-coaches.—English and East Indian Acquaintances.—Sensitiveness of Americans.—House and Grounds of Mr. Greig.—Tablet to Patrick Colquhoun.—Removing Houses on Rollers.—Transfer of the Courthouse.—Removal of a Methodist Church and Steeple.

ON the morning of Wednesday, the fifth of September, we left Rochester for Canandaigua by an extra-coach, and, passing over the same road as we had traversed in coming from thence, we performed the journey in about five hours, the distance being twenty-nine miles. The heat was scorching and the dust excessive, although only a week before there had been torrents of rain, and, on the preceding Monday night, a frost so sharp as to blight and destroy the young corn and buckwheat of the neighbourhood; so great are the changes even in this the mildest and most equable region of the state.

We remained three days at Canandaigua; some of the principal inhabitants of which, hearing that I was going through their town on my way from Niagara to Utica, having urged me to remain there this period, if I could spare no more, to deliver three of my lectures on the countries of the East; and this brought me into the agreeable acquaintance of most of the leading individuals of the place. Through their courtesy and attention, we had an opportunity of visiting the remains of the ancient Indian forts, which still exist here within a mile of the town, as well as the borders of the lake, and several points of extensive and beautiful landscape views. We visited also the academy for the education of young gentlemen, and the seminary for the education of young ladies; and enjoyed ourselves, during our short stay, amid the cordial and pressing hospitalities of the resident families, whose chief regret appeared to be that we could not remain longer among them.

The Indian name, Canandaigua, signifies, in the language of the Senecas, by whom it was bestowed, "the chosen place;" and the first settlers have very wisely retained it, instead of giving it a new appellation, for none more appropriate than the one it bears could possibly be adopted. Nothing can be more beautiful than its situation; and the view of the town, the lake, the forests, and the surrounding country, from every elevated point of view in the vicinity, is really exquisite, so that Canandaigua well deserves the reputation

it enjoys of being one of the most beautiful villages in the United States, and, I think I might safely add, in the world.

In our former visit to this place, on our way from Saratoga to Niagara, a general description of the town was given, as well as a history of the first purchase of its territory from the Seneca Indians, by Phelps and Gorham, from Massachusetts.

The grandchildren of Mr. Phelps, as well as of Mr. Gorham, are still settled here, and are possessed of handsome landed estates in the town and neighbourhood. We had the pleasure of making their acquaintance, and felt from that circumstance an additional interest in all the details of the early history of the place. The portraits of both these founders are preserved in the Courthouse, where they are suspended on each side of the portrait of Judge Howell, which occupies the centre; and their names are in universal veneration and respect.

One of many acts that will endear their names to posterity is that of their having made the munificent grant of 6000 acres of land for the purpose of building and endowing a public institution for the education of youth. It is from this grant that the "Academy of Canandaigua" has arisen to its present condition and importance. This building stands in an enclosed space of ground near the main street, and at the entrance of the town from Rochester. It is a substantial brick building, with a frontage of about 150 feet, and three stories in elevation. It contains three large schoolrooms, two recitation-rooms, and forty-two rooms for students, besides a suite of private apartments for the principal and his family. There are six professors, in addition to the principal, employed in the tuition of the pupils, three of whom have obtained the degree of A.M., and one of A.B.

The pupils range from seven years to twenty-one in age, none being admitted before they can read well, so as to enable them to enter at once on their course of English studies. The other departments embrace geography, history, arithmetic, mathematics, chymistry, mineralogy, moral and intellectual philosophy, and the constitution and laws of the United States. A special department is devoted to the principles of teaching, this academy having been appointed by the state to be one of the Normal Schools for furnishing teachers to the common schools of the country. The whole cost to a pupil, including board and education, in all the departments taught, does not exceed 130 dollars, or 30*l.* sterling, per annum; while to those who live with their parents, and have daily tuition only, the cost does not exceed 20 dollars, or 5*l.* a year. The number of pupils at present is about 150, and everything about the establishment, which I was permitted to inspect with the greatest freedom, appeared to be in the most perfect order.

There is also in Canandaigua an excellent institution for education, called "The Ontario Female Seminary." This establishment

was commenced by private means, without the aid of any grant such as that made for the male academy; but it receives every year a certain sum from the state, the amount of which depends on the number of its pupils studying the higher branches of knowledge, such as mathematics, the classics, and mental philosophy, and on the number of the establishments of education in the state possessing similar claims. The building is handsome, spacious, pleasantly situated, and combines all the advantages of a public institution and a private residence. The management is ably sustained by the two principals, who are highly esteemed for their competency and amiable characters, and they are assisted by nine teachers in the several departments over which they respectively preside, the whole being under the superintendence of a body of nine trustees.

The course of study pursued at this seminary resembles that of the female academy at Albany, and embraces all the branches of learning usually taught at our best public schools. The present number of the pupils is 180; and it speaks highly for the reputation of the establishment that these are from all parts of the United States, from Maine and New-Hampshire to Ohio and Michigan, and from Pennsylvania and New-Jersey to Upper Canada; though, of course, the great majority are from the State of New-York.

While looking over the names of the pupils—which, being printed in the catalogue and prospectus that is presented to visitors and inspectors, is, to a certain extent, public property, and may, therefore, without a breach of confidence, be commented on—I could not fail to be struck with the number of what are usually called “fine names” borne by the young ladies, and chiefly by those from the State of New-York; as if the taste that suggested the Greek and Roman names for the towns had infected parents with the desire to give equally fine names to their children. The following are examples, taken exactly as they occur in the list: Cornelia, Magdalena, Gloriana, Adelaide, Ascenath, Lavinia, Delia, Amanda, Miranda, Juliette, Lucinda, Lucretia, Elvira, Lydia, Evelina, Adeline, Isabella, Isaphene, Pauline, Adelia, Angeline, Emeline, Georgiana, Augusta, Philena, Levantia, Almira, and Pamelia.

Notwithstanding these fine names, however, which were not of their own choice, of course, and for the taste of which, whether good or bad, they are not responsible, there appeared, from their examinations and conversation, to be a fund of great good sense and propriety among them, with a thorough conception of the true end of education, considerable proficiency in the several branches of study to which they had devoted themselves, and great modesty and decorum of behaviour.

I could not learn that physical education, in the stated daily practice of bodily exercises of any particular kind, was at all more

attended to here than in the female academy of Albany; and yet the young ladies, on the whole, looked stronger and healthier, which may chiefly be attributed, perhaps, to the superiority of the air of the country to that of the town. Attached to the seminary is a small but well-selected library, a museum, in which mineralogical specimens, well-classified and arranged, are beginning to accumulate; and lectures on scientific subjects, by competent professors, are occasionally given, with experiments, for which they have a complete apparatus. The highest cost of the tuition in every branch is 143 dollars, or about 28*l.*, per annum, and for board in the most comfortable style, 117 dollars, or about 23*l.*, per annum, making together 51*l.* sterling per year.

To the eastward of Canandaigua and Seneca Lake are portions of land, which, belonging to the State of New-York, were set aside by act of Congress to be appropriated as bounty-lands to the surviving soldiers of the Revolutionary war, and hence it is called the Military Tract. This embraced twenty-eight townships, each township containing 100 lots of 600 acres each, exclusive of reservations, the whole area of land being equal to 1,680,000 acres. It includes several of the beautiful lakes of the state, especially the Seneca, Otisco, Owasco, Skaneateles, Onondaga, and Cayuga, as well as streams of great value, and mineral productions, including salt, gypsum, lime, marl, and iron ore. The act of Congress passed in 1776 awarded a certain bounty of the public lands to all the officers and soldiers of the Revolutionary army; but the State of New-York, wishing to make separate provision for such of her own citizens as served in this war, passed an act in 1783, awarding a fivefold proportion to that granted by the General Government of the United States, which was apportioned as follows:

	Acres.		Acres.
Privates and non-commissioned officers	600	Major	2400
An Ensign	900	Lieutenant-colonel	2700
Lieutenant	1200	Colonel	3000
Captain	1800	Brigadier-general	5100
		Major-general,	6600

If the parties to whom these lands had been assigned had gone to settle on them, or procured competent and trustworthy persons to clear and cultivate them at once, they would have furnished a handsome competency to the privates, and a large fortune to the superior officers. But with the characteristic imprudence of soldiers, most of the privates sold their portions to speculators for insignificant sums. Their patents, as soon as made out, were sold for eight dollars! and even so late as 1792 they were to be bought for thirty dollars! In 1800 they were not to be had for less than from three to five dollars per acre before they were cleared; and now that most of them have been cleared and cultivated, the current price is from twenty to thirty dollars per acre.

It was in this military tract that the practice was first introduced

of giving classical names to the townships into which it was divided; and in explanation of the great extent to which this was carried, I was told that the surveyor-general of that day, to whom the laying out and naming of the towns in the military tract was intrusted, happened to be a pedant whom nothing would satisfy that was not either Greek or Roman. When the names of their ancient cities were exhausted, he took those of ancient generals and warriors; the names of the two spots at which his court was alternately held being Scipio and Manlius; and Brutus and Cassius, Homer, Virgil, and Ovid, were added to the catalogue. This folly is perceived by nearly all persons now, and regretted by very many, and perhaps no measure would be more popular than one for the revision of the nomenclature of the towns and counties. It has already been proposed, indeed, to restore the Indian names in many instances; and, among others, to call the State of New-York "Ontario," and the City of New-York "Manhattan," which would be a great improvement. As a contrast to this, it may be said, that while the Indian names of *places* are in general highly characteristic and beautifully expressive, those of *persons*, though sometimes dignified and appropriate, are often the very reverse; and a striking example of this may be given in a selection of the names of those who were parties to a treaty between the United States and the Six Nations, signed at Canandaigua, including the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Senecas, and Tuscaroras, of which the following are a few:

Dogs-round-the-Fire.
The Blast.
Swimming Fish.
Dancing Feather.
Falling Mountain.
Broken Tomahawk.
Snake.
Bandy Legs.
Big Tree.
Thrown-in-the-Water.
Corn-planter.
Big Cross.
Long Tree.
Loaded Man.
The Wasp.
Wood-bug.
Big-bale-of-a-Kettle.
Council-keeper.

Handsome Lake.
Fish-carrier.
Stinking Fish.
Little Billy.
Two-Skies-of-a-length.
Farmer's Brother.
New Arrow.
Half-town.
Broken Twig.
Full Moon.
Twenty Canoes.
Tearing Asunder.
Big Sky.
Little Beard.
Green Grasshopper.
Woods-on-Fire.
Heap of Dogs.
Red Jacket.

It may give the reader some idea of the extent of the area still belonging to the remnants of the Six Nations now lingering in the State of New-York, whom the General Government are about removing to the lands beyond the Mississippi, in the Far West, to place before him an official statement of the actual amount of reservation lands allotted by treaty to each tribe, as well as of the

annuities in money still paid to them by the state, both taken from the public records.

Everything connected with this race becomes more and more interesting, from the general impression of their nearly-approaching extinction, when there will be no longer any living memorials in the transmission of traditionary history from one generation to another, as all will be swept away. The Northern tribes have remained the longest, because they have always been the most powerful; and it has been justly observed by Dr. Mitchell, that the parallel between the Indians of America and of Asia affords this important conclusion, that on both continents the hordes dwelling in higher latitudes have overpowered the more civilized though feeble inhabitants of the countries situate towards the equator. As the Tartars have overrun China, so the Aztecs have subdued Mexico; as the Huns and Alains desolated Italy, so the Chippewas destroyed the populous settlements on both banks of the Ohio. The surviving race in these terrible conflicts between the different nations of the ancient residents of North America is evidently that of Tartars, from the similarity of features, languages, and customs.

The following are the official statements of the reserved lands and annuities still appropriated to the Indians of the Six Nations at the present time.

RESERVATION OF LANDS TO INDIANS.

Places.	Acres.	Indians.	Places.	Acres.	Indians.
Buffalo	83,557	636	Tuscarora	1,920	314
Tonawanta	46,209	365	Oneida	20,000	1031
Cattaraugus	26,880	389	Onondaga	7,000	300
Alleghany River	30,469	597	Stockbridge	13,000	438
Genesee River	31,648	456	St. Regis	10,000	400
Oil Spring	640	000			
			Total,	271,323	4966

ANNUITIES PAYABLE TO INDIANS.

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Oneida Nation	5169 28	Posterity of Fish-carrier	50 00
Christian party of same	1443 28	St. Regis Indians . . .	2398 33
Pagan party	332 48	Brothertown Indians . .	2142 79
Onondagas	2430 00	Stockbridge Indians . .	371 00
Cayugas	2300 00		
Senecas	500 00	Total	17,137 16

In the course of our excursions round Canandaigua, we went to visit the remains of two very ancient Indian forts which are still to be traced here, the one to the east and the other to the west of the town, about a mile distant in each direction. We were accompanied in this excursion by the venerable Judge Attwater, one of the earliest settlers here, who had resided in Canandaigua nearly half a century, and remembered it a perfect forest where the principal houses now stand. The western fort, when he first saw it, had a parapet or breastwork of four feet high all round, though evidently

much diminished from its original height by time and decay. At present all that was to be seen was the outline of the mounds, with faint traces of the ditch surrounding it; but the whole surface was covered with an orchard of rich fruit-trees, and the ground between these was at that moment under the plough, so that in a very few years every vestige of this fort will be gone.

The fort on the east of the town has not such distinct elevations, but it has a more perfect ditch; and this is entirely covered with trees of the secondary growth, forming a deep and solemn shade, that harmonizes well with the solitude and abandonment of the place. The view from hence is extensive and beautiful, and with a judicious selection of the larger trees to be left standing, it would make a beautiful spot for a dwelling, to which purpose it will, no doubt, ere long be devoted. Each of these forts contained about thirty acres in area, and from both had been taken many interesting relics of Indian warfare, in tomahawks and other weapons, as well as articles of dress, especially the more ornamented and least perishable parts, with pipes variously devised, and adorned with silver and other inlayings of metal-work.

The Senecas, by whom these forts were last occupied—though many suppose them not to have been built by them, but by a people anterior to their day, and more civilized—were among the most warlike of all the Six Nations, and often made excursions to the country of the south for purposes of conquest or victory. In the narrative of Mary Jameson, the "White Woman," when speaking of her last husband, Hioakatoo, a Seneca chief, who died in 1811 on the banks of the Genesee River, aged 103 years, she says:

"In the year 1731 he was appointed a runner, to assist in collecting an army to go against the Cotawpas (or Catawbias), the Cherokees, and other Southern Indians. A large army was collected, and after a long and fatiguing march, they met their enemies in what was then called 'the low, dark, and bloody lands,' near the mouth of the Red River, in what is now called the State of Kentucky. The Cotawpas and their associates had by some means been apprized of their approach, and lay in ambush to take them at once, when they should come within their reach, and destroy their whole army. The Northern Indians, with their usual sagacity, discovered the situation of their enemies, rushed upon the ambuscade, and massacred 1200 on the spot. The battle continued for two days and two nights with the utmost severity, in which the Northern Indians were victorious, and so far succeeded in destroying the Cotawpas that they at that time ceased to be a nation. The victors, however, suffered an immense loss in killed, but gained the hunting-ground, which was their grand object, though the Cherokees would not give it up in a treaty, nor consent to make peace. Bows and arrows were at that time in general use, though a few guns were also employed."

The time has now arrived when the Cherokees are in the act of leaving these hunting-grounds, which they would not cede, to go beyond the Mississippi; General Scott, and a force of the United States army, being at this moment employed in their removal; and

the Senecas themselves, as we have already seen, are also on the point of being transferred from their ancient homes to new territories west of the "Father of Waters," so that both the victors and the vanquished are now in a progressive course of extinction. The destructive wars which formed the chief occupation of their ancestors are sufficient to account for the great diminution of their numbers in the years that preceded the American Revolution. The excessive use of intoxicating spirits has operated with still more destroying force since that period; and of late years, disease, in every form and shape, has added to the number of those who perish. In a letter recently published by Mr. Catlin, the celebrated Indian traveller, are the following painful details on this subject:

"Only one year and a half ago I was at Prairie du Chien, on the Upper Mississippi, where I beheld the frightful effects of the smallpox among the Winnebagoes and Sioux. Every other man among them was destroyed by it; and Owa-be-shau, the greatest man of the Sioux, with half of his band, died under the corners of fences, in little groups, to which kindred ties held them in ghastly death, with their bodies swollen and covered with pustules, their eyes blinded, and hideously howling their death-song in utter despair; affectionately clinging to each other's necks with one hand, and grasping bottles of whiskey in the other."

Among many other statements which from time to time appear in the American newspapers corroborative of this spread of disease among the Indian tribes, the following is taken from a very recent journal on the subject:

"PESTILENCE IN AMERICA.—A mortal plague, said to be the same as the 'Black Death,' which raged so fatally in England and in Europe some five or six centuries ago, has broken out in the western and south-western borders of the United States. As yet it has been exclusively confined to the Indians. It attacks the head and loins suddenly, and with dreadful pain; and in about two hours the victim is a corpse. The body then swells enormously, and turns instantly black. Some idea may be formed of the fearful progress and havoc of death on the prairies, from the fact that within a few weeks more than 33,000 savages died. Of a lodge of 1600 Mandans (a noble tribe), only 35 remained alive. 10,600 Assineboins have died; and deserted wigwams, newly-made mounds, or putrifying corpses, attended only by the croaking raven and the screaming eagle, mark the mournful desolation of the Indian forests and prairies. The Crows and Black-feet, so eloquently described in Irving's 'Astoria' and 'Rocky Mountains,' have suffered dreadfully; and more than one of the smaller tribes have been summoned, man, woman, and papoose, to the tribunal of Manitoulin, the Great Spirit, not one remaining to tell that they were once a nation of warriors! The disease is supposed to have originated from smallpox among the traders, and from them to have been communicated to the Indians, where it soon appeared in the aggravated form of 'The Black Death.'"

It is painful to witness these effects of the contact of the white race with the Indians, and impossible not to yield assent to the sentiments expressed in the following passage from Mr. Latrobe:

"What has been the influence of the contact and intercourse of the European with the Indian, we all know. Where he found them poor,

he left them poorer; where one scene of violence and vengeance had been seen, there many have since been acted; where he found one evil passion, he planted many; where one fell disease had thinned their ranks, he brought those of his blood and land to reap a more abundant harvest. His very gifts were poison: selfish and inconsiderate in his kindness, he was very bitter in his revenge and anger: he excited the passion of the savage for his own purposes, and when it raged against him, he commenced the work of extermination.

"No one who reads the history of these countries since their first settlement can draw any other conclusion than that the white man secretly, with his grasping hand, selfish policy, and want of faith, has been, in almost every case, directly or indirectly, the cause of the horrors which he afterward rose to retaliate. That the wrath of the Indian, when excited, was terrible, his anger cruel, and his blows indiscriminate, falling almost always on the comparatively innocent; and that defence, and perhaps retaliation, then became necessary to save the country from the repetition of those fearful scenes of murder and torture, which make the early history of the settlements a marvel and a romance, is also to be allowed; but the settlement of the whites in America is, with but few exceptions, a foul blot upon Christendom."

The climate of Canandaigua is much praised for being healthier and milder than in most other parts of the State of New-York. At the period of our visit it was extremely hot, the thermometer ranging at about 85° in the month of September; but, though the sun was so scorching that all classes of people, even the men in the ordinary ranks of life, sheltered themselves from its power by the use of an umbrella, the fresh air from the lake made the atmosphere agreeable in the shade. The town is also considered unusually healthy, and certainly the appearance of the inhabitants bore out that supposition, which corroborates the opinion formed by President Dwight and Dr. Ludlow on the medical topography of Western New-York, conveyed by them in the following extract:

"From the pulmonary consumption, so frequent elsewhere, they (the inhabitants of this town) are in a great measure exempted. Dr. W., of Canandaigua, a physician in extensive practice, informed me that, during the ten years of his residence there, only three persons within his knowledge had died of the consumption in that township and its neighbourhood. He also observed that most of the diseases found on the sea-coast were unknown there, and that he believed the fever and ague to be not improbably the cause of this exemption. As I passed through Sheffield, in Massachusetts, I was informed, in a manner which could not be rationally questioned, that the consumption is also very rare in that town. Should there be no error in this account, it will deserve inquiry whether the infrequency of this disease in the Southern States is not owing more to the fever and ague than to the warmth of the climate; or perhaps, in better words, whether the tendencies to disease in the human frame do not, in particular tracts, flow in this single channel? Should the result of this inquiry be an affirmative answer, Canandaigua may hereafter become a more convenient retreat for persons subject to pulmonic affections than the Southern States."

Among the meteorological phenomena occasionally seen here, was one that occurred on the Canandaigua Lake only a few days before our arrival, and which may be best described in the lan-

guage of one of the many persons who saw it, and who describes it in the following communication. He says :

"On Saturday, the 25th of August, 1838, at 4 o'clock P.M., a sudden squall from the northwest swept across the surface of the lake, which till then had been calm and unruffled. While watching the altered appearance of the lake, one portion of its surface was tossed by the action of the wind into a white spray, which kept moving along in a southeast direction. As it approached the eastern shore, a thin white column of vapour rose in the air, waving to and fro like a huge serpent in a perpendicular position. Directly above this column, though apparently unconnected with it, was a much larger column of spray, performing rapid evolutions in the air, increasing in dimensions as it rose into the clouds to the height of between 200 and 300 feet, and thus presenting very much the appearance of the volume of smoke which issues from the funnel of a steam-vessel in motion. This appearance was maintained, without much change, for the space of between ten and twelve minutes, during which the white spray on the surface of the lake (forming the base from which the column of vapour arose) gradually contracted in circumference, and at last disappeared altogether. A few seconds after this the two columns gradually disappeared, merging themselves into the heavy clouds which obscured the sky."

During our stay at Canandaigua there was a Democratic Convention of the young men of the state, who met here on the 6th of September, to organize measures and pass resolutions in favour of the present administration, and to support, by all the means within their power, the election of Democratic candidates for the State Legislature, as well as the Democratic governor, and members to the general Congress at the ensuing elections. The meeting was largely attended, as delegates chosen by the several towns in the county of Ontario, of which this is the county town, came in from their respective residences, each bringing a large number of his fellow-townsmen with him as companions. They began to arrive as early as ten o'clock, in gigs, phaetons, cars, carts, and wagons; all those in the uncovered carriages spreading their umbrellas, as the heat was intense, but none walking that we could discover. They all dined at the hotel at one o'clock, and at two they repaired to the courthouse for business.

I was invited to attend their proceedings and take a seat among the leaders, but I preferred going as an ordinary spectator, and remained, therefore, in the rear, with the body of the meeting. Everything was done with the greatest order and propriety; but, to an English taste, there was a coldness, formality, and want of life and enthusiasm about it which made it very tame. This arose chiefly, no doubt, from the meeting being composed wholly of men of the same party, so that no opposition was either feared or expected, and everybody knew beforehand how the matter would end; but it was partly from the habitual manner of the people of the country to transact all their public business in this cold and, to us it would seem, lifeless manner.

Though it had been previously arranged who should be the chairman of the Convention, the form was gone through of proposing, seconding, and voting the individual into the chair. A secretary was then nominated, by whom the names of the delegates sent by the different towns were read over; and these, answering to their names, rose and went within the bar, the meeting being held in the courthouse, or, as we should say, the town hall. The chairman then opened the business of the meeting by a short speech; but there was no cheering when he rose, no clapping of hands to welcome his appointment, no sign whatever, in short, of approbation or the reverse.

He proceeded to assert that the Federal party or Whigs, having been elated with their recent successes in the elections, and leaving no stone unturned to accomplish their object, were now resolved to make a last desperate struggle to wrest the power from the hands of the present administration, and seize the reins of government; but when he saw the extent of the present meeting, and knew the high and firm resolves by which they had pledged themselves to support the only true liberty known in the world, the republicanism or democracy of the United States, he felt assured that, come what would, the county of Ontario would do its duty. Neither here, however, nor at the close of his speech, nor, indeed, at any period of the proceedings, was there the slightest manifestation of sympathy by any expression whatever; while in England, at such a meeting and on such an occasion, even if it had been composed, like this, of the people of one party only, there would have been clapping of hands, loud cries of "hear, hear," or cheering and expressions of approbation at the sentiments, the speaker, or the cause.

The next step was to move that a committee be appointed, to consist of one delegate from each town, to retire and prepare resolutions; this was seconded, and put to the vote by the chairman, those who approved of the resolution being requested to say "Ay," and the contrary "No," as in the English House of Commons, but not by holding up their hands, as in English public meetings. The retirement of the committee to prepare the resolutions was, however, a mere formality, as the resolutions had been already prepared and agreed to by a previous meeting of the delegates, and therefore, in a very few minutes, the committee reappeared from their retirement, with their resolutions all "ready cut and dried," as the phrase is, and without the alteration of a single word.

At this period of the proceedings, learning from one of the friends of the meeting that it was not likely there would be any speeches of interest or importance, and that the resolutions would most probably be put all together and passed as one, without opposition or remark, I withdrew, having been present for nearly two hours, without anything of interest to reward the stay.

There are two weekly newspapers in Canandaigua, one main-

taining the principles of the Whigs, and one of the Democrats; but they have marked or distinguishing features to require observation. The question of the election of the new governor of the state excited more than usual interest here, because the person likely to be put in nomination as the Whig candidate, Mr. Grainger, resides in Canandaigua, and is very popular with his party; but for the same reason, the Democrats will do all in their power to prevent his return.

As we had apartments in the principal hotel of Canandaigua, at which all the stage-coaches going on this road stop on their way to and fro between Albany and Buffalo, our attention was particularly drawn to the great number of carriages passing and repassing at all hours of the day and night. The public stages were the most numerous, and amounted to at least twenty coming and going in the twenty-four hours, each drawn by four horses, and each carrying nine passengers; the rest were what are called "extras," that is, stage-coaches of exactly the same size and description as the others, and drawn also by four horses, but taken by a party, as a post-chaise would be in England, and at the entire command of the occupiers as to time of setting out, rate of travelling, and so on. No persons, as far as we had observed or could hear of, ever travelled in their own carriages with post-horses, nor would it be prudent that they should do so, unless they had stage-coaches made for their own purpose; because, from the roughness of the best roads, a chariot, or barouche, such as is used by families in the towns, would be shaken to pieces in a single journey.

The horses seemed to me more uniformly good than in England, though there are none so fine and beautiful as the noble carriage-horses of the rich in London; but they are certainly above the average of those used in the public conveyances of England, being less worked and better fed, though they do not appear to so much advantage, from the inferior condition of their harness. The tails of the horses are never cut; and, remembering the beauty of the horses of Egypt, Syria, and Arabia, they looked, to my eye, more graceful and natural with this fine appendage of beauty than when cropped, as at home.

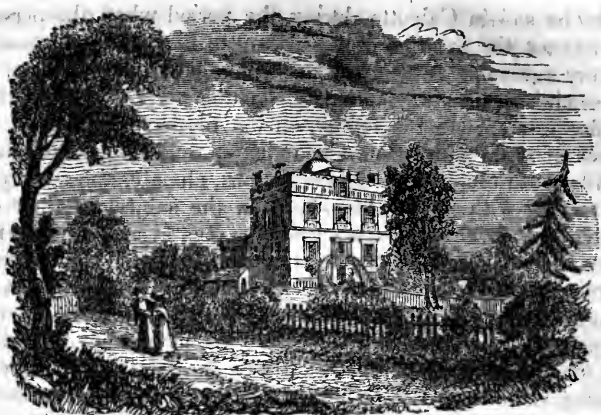
Even in this comparatively remote and retired spot I met with some old acquaintances; among others, Mr. Weddell, of Hull, formerly an owner of steam-vessels there, but recently settled on a farm of his own, within six miles of the village, and prospering as an agriculturist. He had heard my lectures in Hull some seven or eight years ago, and now came in with all his family and dependants to hear them in Canandaigua. Another and more intimate acquaintance was Captain Monteith, of the 17th Lancers, who had served under Col. Lincoln Stanhope, and with Col. Perronett Thompson, the member for Hull, in Guzerat, and whom I had known as an ardent reformer—as far as it was safe for a military

man to be so—in Calcutta during the period when the persecutions against the freedom of the press ran highest. Our meeting was very agreeable to us both, as it enabled us to enjoy our Indian reminiscences with mutual satisfaction. He was now settled on a fine estate, with his family, on the borders of the lake, at a distance of eight miles from Canandaigua, and expressed himself delighted with the country, its institutions, climate, and society.

In talking with native Americans on the subject of their own country, their dwellings, farms, gardens, &c., every foreigner must observe their peculiar sensitiveness to any remark, which, however well meant, should have the effect of satisfying them that you saw any imperfections in either. In such cases, it is almost invariably their practice to say, "Ah, but you do not make sufficient allowances for the newness of the country; consider that we were but yesterday, as it were, in a wilderness, and that the very forest-trees have their roots still in the middle of our streets. Under these circumstances," they will add, "you must allow that it is very well for a young country." At Canandaigua, however, I had an opportunity of seeing what could be done, even in a wilderness of yesterday, by persons having the requisite liberality to expend their means in improvements, and the requisite taste to direct their labours.

Mr. Greig, a Scotch gentleman by birth, came here about forty years ago as the land-agent of Mr. Patrick Colquhoun, the celebrated author of the work on the Police of the Metropolis, and of Governor Hornby, of England, both of whom were owners of lands which they had purchased in this region. During the period of his residence here, Mr. Greig acquired a very handsome property by his own industry and talents; and, marrying the granddaughter of the celebrated Oliver Phelps, the first purchaser and settler of the country, he improved his fortune by this alliance. Mr. Greig, however, having a liberality somewhat above that which thinks no money well laid out unless it is to bring immediate interest and profit in return, has devoted a large portion of his wealth to improvement; and having also good taste in architecture, agriculture, and gardening, he has built a princely mansion, furnished it in the best possible style, and adorned it with works of art in painting and statuary; laid out a beautiful garden, both useful and ornamental, and, in short, surrounded himself with more of abundance, fertility, beauty, and refinement combined than it had yet been our lot to see in any part of the United States, not excepting even the finest houses in the largest cities of the Union.

His table and the whole domestic management of his household are superior to anything of the kind we had ever seen in America; and it was difficult to persuade ourselves that we were not in the paternal mansion of some old English gentleman of opulence and taste near the metropolis, as every luxury and every convenience



were united, with the greatest order and quiet among the servants, and the greatest elegance in all that surrounded us. The view from the cupola of his roof is full of exquisite beauty in the extent and loveliness of the landscape, as is all the rest; and I could not help saying to Mr. Greig that it would advance the domestic arts and social refinement a century at least in America, if he were to invite an annual convention from all parts of the Union to pass a week at his residence, to take plans, drawings, and models of all they saw, to make notes in detail of all the processes of domestic management in use, and then to dismiss them all to their several homes, with an injunction to communicate what they saw to others, and, as far as possible, carry it out into practice.

The truth is (and this is a proof of it), that whatever money and taste can accomplish in England, money and taste can accomplish here; but, so long as the mass of those who have money continue to think that it can never be well laid out unless it is to bring more money and profit in its train, and so long as the taste to perceive what is really good in food, furniture, and domestic management does not exist, the improvement will be slow; but that slowness is not attributable to the fact of America being a young country, so much as to the unwillingness to lay out money except to produce gain.

A tablet has been affixed to the portico of the Presbyterian Church here by Mr. Greig, to the memory of his former friend and patron, the late Patrick Colquhoun, which is alike honourable to both; and as it is agreeable to place on record the instances in which distinguished merit obtains a wide-spread recognition, as in the present instance, I obtained a copy of the inscription, which will be found among the papers in the Appendix.*

* See Appendix No. V.

Mr. Greig mentioned to us a curious fact respecting the easy removal of houses in this country, of which, indeed, Canandaigua had furnished several examples, he being the first to commence it. He said that the first house he occupied stood just in front of his present mansion; and when this was completed—which I was surprised to learn was accomplished in two seasons, and every portion of the work, beautiful as it was, executed by mechanics of the village—his family moved from the old house into the new one, which was just in its rear. Instead, however, of pulling down the old house and removing the materials, which would have been the process observed in England, the whole house was lifted up from its foundations, and rollers being placed under the whole, it was removed to a considerable distance, and appropriated as a parsonage-house to a new clergyman that had just arrived in the village, for whom a dwelling was wanted, and in whose occupancy it now remains.

Another instance was the removal of a large courthouse, one of the largest and best of the public buildings in the place. The original position which it occupied was not deemed favourable, and it was accordingly lifted up, placed on rollers, and removed from one part of the town to another, and ultimately set down side by side with the postoffice and townhouse, to form one side of a public square just opposite the principal hotel, where it still remains. Still another instance was added, in the removal of the Methodist Church, with its lofty spire, one of the largest places of worship in Canandaigua. This was brought from its original position into the middle of the principal street, and then gradually drawn by a long train of horses and oxen up the hill and along the street, until it arrived opposite its newly-chosen locality, where it was more advantageously placed, and as firmly fixed as ever, and where it still remains.

CHAPTER XXII.

Journey from Canandaigua to Auburn.—First Sight of an American country Funeral.—Visit to the State Prison.—Condition of the Establishment.—Act of the Legislature restricting prison Labour.—Statistics of Crime, Education, and Intemperance.—Moral and religious Reform.—Description of the Edifice and its Cells.—Discipline and Treatment of the Convicts.—Visit to the Chapel during Divine Service.—Defects of the Auburn System of Prison Discipline.—Opinions of Dr. Lieber, of South Carolina.—Objections to the Pennsylvania System answered.—Opinions of British Inspectors on the Auburn System.—Superiority of the Philadelphia System.—Description of the Town of Auburn.

WE left Canandaigua on the morning of Saturday, the eighth of September, for Auburn, and, following the usual stage-route by which we had before travelled on our way hither, we passed

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through the same places, namely, Geneva, Waterloo, Seneca Falls, and Cayuga, all of which appeared to us as beautiful as when we first saw them, and lost nothing by a second inspection. The landscape scenery, indeed, was beginning to assume a new aspect, from the first appearance of the autumnal tints of decay on the woods around; and, few as they yet were, their brightness in the yellows and scarlets threw a great charm over the forest masses.

The only incident that occurred on the way was the meeting a country funeral, which was conducted much after the manner of a funeral in the west of England forty years ago. A plain hearse, with black velvet covering, contained the corpse, and took the lead in the procession; and following after this were not less than fifty carriages, cars, and gigs, all filled with respectably-dressed farmers and their families, mostly in black, attending their departed friend to his last home. There was an absence of ostentation and parade, and a simplicity, decorum, and earnestness of sorrow instead, which made it at once natural and impressive; and, as such, greatly more venerable than the cold and formal pomp of funerals with hired mourners, and the entire absence of the family, as sometimes seen in London.

We reached Auburn about five o'clock, having left Canandaigua at half past nine, and were thus seven hours and a half in going thirty-nine miles, though we made no stoppages to take refreshment on the road, and had a large extra stage, capable of holding nine persons, occupied by four only, with four good horses all the way; the roads, even at their very best, are so rough and unfavourable to speed, compared with those of England. The town of Auburn looked more beautiful than when we saw it before, and struck us as even handsomer than Canandaigua as we entered it; and we found agreeable apartments and excellent accommodation at one of the best houses in the route, the American Hotel.

On the following day I had an opportunity of examining the State-prison at Auburn, having been provided with a letter of introduction to the superintendent, who afforded me every facility, and furnished all the information I desired. This prison, which is on the northwestern extremity of the town, was built in 1816. It is a hollow square, enclosed by a strong stone wall of 2000 feet in extent, or five hundred feet on each side. The edifice within this wall has a front of 300 feet, facing nearly to the east, in the centre of which is the keeper's residence; and two wings of 240 feet each extend behind this dwelling to the westward. It is in these two wings that the cells for the prisoners are contained, and between them is a grassplat, with gravel walks. Beyond or behind these, to the westward, is an open space called the yard, surrounded with the workshops in which the men are employed, and having in the centre reservoirs of water. The shops, which are built against the surrounding wall, extend to nearly 1000 feet in length;

they are built of brick, and are fire-proof, and they are all well lighted from their skylights and the courtyard. The walls within which these shops are enclosed are thirty-five feet high and four feet thick, and the other walls of the prison are about twenty feet high and three feet thick. The whole was erected by the labour of convict prisoners, under the superintendence of the architect; and, in addition to the cost of their maintenance while labouring, the money actually expended, in materials and superintendence, exceeded 300,000 dollars.

The distinguishing feature of this state-prison in its object is, that the convicts shall be made, by labour, to defray all the expenses of the establishment; and, if possible, yield a profit to the state, making the reformation of the criminal the subordinate consideration. It is this, more than any other feature, which distinguishes it from the Penitentiary of Philadelphia, where the reformation of the criminal is the first object pursued, and the produce of the prisoner's labour is the subordinate end. They differ also materially in their discipline; the prisoners at Auburn being separated only at night, and brought together to work and take their meals in company, but not permitted to speak to each other on any account whatever; and hence this system is called "the Silent System;" while at Philadelphia each prisoner is confined in a separate cell from the time of his entry to that of his discharge, and never sees, or is ever seen by, any of his fellow-prisoners during all that period; and hence this is called "the Solitary System."

As profit to the state is the main object of the Auburn establishment, great pains are taken, by the classification of the prisoners who are acquainted with trades and the teaching of those who are not, to make the workshops produce as much as possible; and for this purpose the convicts are made to labour about thirteen hours per day. The whole number of convicts in the prison is about 900, and their total earnings were 59,747 dollars from labour performed and articles manufactured and sold during the last year. The ordinary expenses are usually such as to leave a surplus profit of from 2000 dollars to 4000 dollars per annum to the state; but in the past year, owing to various improvements made in the prison itself, the expenditure has exceeded the receipts, and, accordingly, a grant of 25,000 dollars became necessary to meet the deficiency. The following statement of expenditure and receipts for the last year, 1837, will show the details of each:

EXPENDITURE.			RECEIPTS.		
	Dls.	Cts.		Dls.	Cts.
Prison	238	89	State of New-York	25,000	00
Officers and keepers	13,849	32	Cooper shop	3,950	75
Guard	6,990	00	Tool shop	1,312	45
Matron	240	00	Cotton workshop	3,172	20
Chaplain	499	92	Tailor's shop	2,980	44
Hospital	1,079	33	Clock shop	2,190	32
Repairs and Improve- ments	3,531	65	Machine shop	4,769	06
Provisions	21,684	06	Comb shop	3,676	81
Clothing	3,992	81	Frame shop	3,775	42
Firewood	2,693	52	Cabinet shop	4,946	40
Oil and candles	993	75	Carpet shop	3,583	72
Charcoal	413	53	Shoe shop	4,426	70
Brooms	22	08	Stone shop	4,526	35
Horse, &c.	196	68	Smith's shop	479	25
Stationery	121	74	Prison	998	53
Postage	54	65	Visitors	1,676	25
Sheriffs	7,398	46		71,469	65
Inspectors	288	00	Add balance 30th Sept., 1836	2,833	21
Discharged convicts	391	00		74,302	86
West yard	5,397	73	Deduct expenditures	70,077	12
	70,077	12	Balance 30th Sept., 1837	4,225	74

In consequence of the variety, excellence, and cheapness of the articles made by the convicts, the prison wares were in general preferred to those made by mechanics out of doors; and this class felt themselves aggrieved, therefore, by the interference of the prison labour with their usual profits. Accordingly, petitions and representations were sent to the Legislature of the state, which induced it to pass an act in May, 1835, providing that "no mechanical trade shall hereafter be taught to convicts in the state-prisons of New-York, except the making of those articles of which the chief supply for the consumption of the country is imported from foreign countries;" and also enacting that "in all those branches of business in which the consumption of the country is chiefly supplied without foreign importation, the number of convicts to be employed or let shall be limited by the number of convicts who had learned a trade before coming to the prison." The object of this law was to protect the labour of the honest mechanic outside the prison against the competition of the cheaper labour of the criminal within its walls. But the effect has been to throw a great number of the convicts out of employment altogether, and thus to produce the double evil of lessening the ability of the directors to maintain the establishment by the profit of convict labour, and compelling them to apply for grants from the state, and also to relax the discipline, and make the government of the prison more difficult, by turning occupied criminals into idle ones.

This feature of the Auburn system, that it should be self-supporting, or even yield a surplus profit to the state, may for the present, therefore, be considered to have ceased; and its future claims to imitation or adoption in other countries will depend on the other feature, that of its combining labour in company with solitary confinement at night, and perfect silence during both these periods. Before entering on this subject, however, it may be well to present some farther statistical details.

Among 3000 convictions, extending over 20 years, from 1817 to 1836, selected for analysis, the following numbers appear to be the principal classes of crimes: larceny, 1568; forgery, 303; burglary, 264; making or passing counterfeit money, 253; perjury, 95; attempt to kill, 86; attempt at rape, 67; manslaughter, 54; arson, 42; rape, 41; swindling, 37; bigamy, 34; robbery, 29; receiving stolen goods, 16; murder, 11; felony, 8; incest, 7; sodomy, 8; poisoning, 3. The rest were misdemeanours and attempts to escape. Of the whole number of 3000, the females were only 101, the negroes 270, and Indians 26. Of second convictions there were 142, of third convictions 14, and of fourth convictions 1. Those born in the State of New-York amounted to 1403, those from other parts of the United States were 1022, and those from other countries were 575.

Of the causes that led to the commission of the various crimes for which the prisoners were condemned, ignorance and intemperance were, as usual, the most productive, and this will be seen by the following returns from the chaplain's report for 1838:

"1232 convicts sentenced to this prison may be classed, with reference to their education, former habits, &c., as follows:

Of collegiate education	3	Intemperate	934
Of academical ditto	13	Temperate drinkers	276
Could read, write, and cipher	351	Total abstinents	22
Could read and write only	311		1232
Could read only	272		
Could not read the Bible	282		
	1232	Under the influence of liquor at the time of committing crimes	736
Excessively intemperate	457	Had intemperate parents or guardians	458
Moderately ditto	477	Others not so influenced	38
	934		1232

Many of these, however, desperate as their cases were, have been reclaimed by the influence of education and religious instruction, and there is every reason to believe that they have gone out into the world reformed, fully prepared to lead a sober and honest life.

It appears, too, by a table framed from the records of the prison, and embodied in the chaplain's report, that out of 1735 convicts

discharged since the year 1824, there have been only 103 reconvictions, a small fraction more than one out of 17; whereas in some of the older prisons they have been as frequent as one to four, one to three, and even one to two; and this, perhaps, is the best proof that can be offered of the reformation effected by the discipline pursued.

The health of the prisoners is carefully attended to, and the statements on this subject must be as acceptable to the philanthropist as those already given, considering how much the punishment of imprisonment is aggravated by disease, and how severely the mental pains of solitude must be augmented by the sufferings of the body.

The discipline of the prison may be thus described: At night every convict is confined in a separate cell, the cells being arranged in galleries or stories, one over the other, of which there are five in the two principal wings, with a balcony or platform running along in front of each, and a communication from one balcony to another by open stairs. The cells, of which I was permitted to make the freest inspection, were much smaller than those in the prisons of Philadelphia, being not more than seven feet by five, and in this was contained the hammock of the prisoner, and such few clothes as he possessed (the prison dress being a striped cotton or woollen uniform), and a convenience for his necessary wants. The door was low, narrow, and formed of crossed iron bars, with sufficient opening for light and air, but still gloomy within. From these cells they are all summoned by signal at an early hour in the morning, and marched in single rows or files, under their appointed leaders, to their workshops, where they labour till breakfast, but are not permitted to speak to each other, or even communicate by signs, for the prevention of which a keeper is placed with each gang; and any infringement of this regulation is punished by the infliction of the whip.

It was formerly the custom for them to take their meals in a large hall together, all standing, and with the same rigorous observance of silence; but the resources of the prison falling short, and additional economy having to be studied in all things, they have abolished this plan of their eating together, because it required the presence of about twenty female attendants to serve them, and their wages were an item worth saving. They are now, therefore, marched from the workshop to their cells, where each prisoner has his rations served to him with less labour and expense, and the female attendants are discharged. This change has been very recent, as I was shown the hall and tables still standing, though now no longer used. An hour is allowed for breakfast and an hour for dinner; but, with these exceptions, their labour is continued throughout the day for thirteen hours, and a most vigilant guard is kept over them during all the time so as to prevent their

speaking, and, if possible, to prevent their communicating with each other by any other means; but all the vigilance that can be used is inadequate to accomplish this.

There are no longer any females in the Auburn prison. There were recently about 30 only, and the number rarely exceeded 50, even when the men were above 900. But it having been determined to build a separate department for females, attached to the State-prison at Sing Sing, which is under the same system of management as this, they were removed, about a week ago, under the chief superintendent, to that spot.

On the Sabbath Divine service is performed in the chapel, when all who are able are made to attend. I was permitted to be present at their worship, when 630 were in attendance. It was held at nine in the morning, in order that the officers and the keepers, when the convicts had closed their service and were locked up, might attend their own churches in the town. The chaplain who led the devotions was a young man, and apparently much in earnest; his prayers were rather for them than with them; and no hymns were sung, as it might be well supposed that few could, without hypocrisy, express the sentiments which these compositions usually contain. The sermon was a written one, and was accordingly read to the prisoners. It was, however, simple and appropriate, dwelling on the necessity of repentance, and the danger, the folly, and the wickedness of delay. I paid the utmost attention to the countenances of the convicts, for which I was favourably situated, being on the elevated platform with the officers, right in front of, and opposite to them. I could not trace, however, the least sign of emotion in any. Indifference was the most prevalent condition, as I thought, though there was the strictest silence and the utmost exterior decorum.

There were about fifty negroes among the convicts, and these were seated promiscuously among the whites, no distinction of colour being observed; the forms of the heads and expressions of the countenances were very bad, and such as one would dislike, even if seen in an assembly of unconvicted persons; but those of the whites were decidedly worse than those of the negroes; that is, more indicative of vicious propensities and evil passions. One man was pointed out to me as imprisoned a second time, though a man of some property; and the last conviction was for the murder of his own child, whom he had deliberately whipped to death in cold blood, the flogging being continued for an hour and a half, and the poor little victim expiring under the lash! and yet he seemed to be the most demurely attentive of all the number during the whole of the religious service.

After the closing prayer and benediction, during which the prisoners stood up, they all resumed their seats, until, a signal being given by the knocking of a large key against the back of the last

row of benches, about fifty rose up, formed into a single file or line, and, folding their arms across their breasts, and pressing quite close to each other, they were marched with military step by their keeper to their respective cells, and there locked up for the day, having taken in the morning two rations, one for their breakfast and one for dinner, each to be eaten in the cell, as no one was permitted to come out after the shutting up at the close of service; and this, of course, released all the keepers and attendants for their enjoyment of the Sabbath with their friends.

As soon as one gang or company of about fifty was thus disposed of and secured, a second gang was marched out in the same manner, and then others in succession, till the whole chapel was cleared, which occupied about twenty minutes; the object of this appeared to be to avoid any risk of the whole number being on their legs and in motion at the same time, by which the keepers might be overpowered and the prisoners make their escape.

From all that I saw, from all that I could learn in conversation with the officers of the prison, and from all that I had read on the subject, I was more and more satisfied that there is nothing in which America excels all the nations of the world more than in her system of prison discipline. This pursued at Auburn, as it secures the effectual punishment of the criminal, and yet preserves his health, improves his habits, corrects his morals, and sends him back to society a reformed character, is as superior to the general state of our prisons, conducted on the old plan in England, as twilight is to utter darkness; but, notwithstanding this admission, and it is most sincerely and cordially made, I am also thoroughly convinced that the Silent System pursued in the prison of Auburn is as inferior to the Solitary System observed in the Penitentiary of Philadelphia, as the twilight is to the full meridian blaze of the perfect day. I am unwilling, however, that this judgment should rest on my own opinion alone, and therefore I gladly avail myself of some passages from an admirable letter, dated so recently as January, 1838, and written by Dr. Lieber, professor of history in the College of South Carolina, which reviews the comparative merits of the two systems in a masterly style, and arrives at the same conclusion.

Dr. Lieber says:

"1. The Auburn system acknowledges insulation as the fundamental principle of all sound prison discipline, which is not sufficient, indeed, to constitute it, but without which none is possible; but it does not carry through this vital principle; it stops short of its true effect. The convict in an Auburn penitentiary is kept at night in a solitary cell, which, however, does not make it physically impossible to commune with his neighbours; the prisoner, therefore, must be strictly watched.

"All wardens and chaplains of Auburn penitentiaries whom I have asked have not hesitated one moment to admit that their prisoners do commune, but, add they, of course to a very limited extent, which cannot be dangerous. But I do believe that it is injurious to the prisoner,

though it may not be dangerous to the prison authorities. Whenever I have spoken on this subject with convicts, they have admitted the fact with a promptness, as if the contrary were out of question. The same convict told me, likewise, that the prisoners are very greedy to obtain newspapers, old or new, entire or torn; that they often obtain them in boxes which the hatters send back, through the cooks, barbers, or in any other way, and that, in spite of all the severe punishment pending over them, they do contrive to hide, read, and pass them along.

"2. We object to the Auburn system on the ground of the violence which it absolutely requires. Either you make people who are congregated keep silence, or you do not. If not, you abandon the principle of insulation; if you do, you must use as violent means as it would require to keep the hungry from seizing upon victuals before them. Nature cannot be counteracted by mild means. The desire, the urgent want of communion, without reference to the subject of communion, is an inmost and original longing, a vital instinct of our organization. Without it mankind would not be mankind. I found once a prisoner in the Philadelphia penitentiary who told me that it was music to his ears to hear the shuttle of his neighbour, and that, without knowing who he was, he used to vie with him in the swiftness of using it. I heard once, in visiting a cell, an indistinct knock against the wall, which came from the next cell. I asked what it was; who was the neighbour? The prisoner answered that he did not know, as was the fact, but that once and a while his neighbour knocked and he answered. And for what purpose, I inquired; is it a sign? No, sir, he replied; of what should we give signs? It is only that he says, Here am I; and I answer, I am here. The prisoner would have expressed his idea more distinctly had he said, 'My neighbour says, Here is a man; and I answer, A man is here.' He owned he had been told not to do it, and it was always at the risk of the keeper's hearing it; still they did it now and then. So urgent is the abstract desire of communion, so irksome it is 'to be alone;' and yet we are expected to believe that men seeing each other, working close to each other, marching in actual contact with each other, the mouth of one close to the ear of the other, do not talk!

"3. The inmate of an Auburn penitentiary becomes known by sight to a vast community of criminals, who, by their very life of crime, disperse in all directions. Whoever has been an inmate of an Auburn prison must fear at every step to meet with an acquaintance, to be exposed, to see his possible endeavours to live honestly frustrated, except he have a degree of moral fortitude which we cannot expect: his offence is the very evidence of this want.

"4. It is absolutely necessary that the community should have confidence in a prison. This can only be maintained by free access to it, either of every one who chooses to go, or of persons in whom the public repose confidence—properly elected inspectors. Yet every visiter gazing at the prisoner, when in common with others, is a new thrust at him, which removes him farther from society. Visits ought to be allowed but to very few indeed, and then made to the single prisoner, which cannot be the case in Auburn prisons. Still more objectionable is the permission given to females to visit the prison, as is the case, for instance, in Charlestown. It ought never to be done.

"5. Finally, it is impossible, if the principle of cheapness shall be preserved, to give to the cells on the Auburn plan those dimensions and that character which are requisite, not to effect a feeling of comfort, but of calmness, without which the prisoner must grow worse and worse. Penned up in a very narrow cell, gloomy and every way striking the mind of the prisoner with the horrid reality that he is debased,

that the man in him is not appealed to, he cannot be expected to soften in thought and feeling.

"We think, then, that the Auburn system does not effect what it strives to effect; does not afford an accommodable punishment; does not sufficiently prevent the growing worse of the convict; does not obtain the highest effect with the smallest means; requires physical violence to be maintained, and, therefore, irritates anew; is not well calculated for that religious or intellectual instruction which the criminal requires; does not prevent entirely contamination, and does not calm the prisoner; while it offers no other advantage than that of saving money in the first outlay, which, we think, is vastly overbalanced by the steady, sure, mild, yet effective mode of the Pennsylvania system, and we therefore believe the latter to be greatly preferable.

"When I came to this country many years ago, I knew nothing of the merits of either system. My attention was first drawn to the Auburn penitentiaries. I was struck with their great superiority over other prisons; when I became acquainted, however, with the Pennsylvania system, it appeared to me superior; and every year's observation of both systems, as well as my reading on the subject, have confirmed my opinion more and more."

There are still many, however, who cling to the Auburn system; some because, having once advocated it, they are unwilling to change, and others because it is troublesome to examine evidence, and easier to abide by opinions once entertained. It is important, therefore, that the objections to it, and its contrast with the superior results of the Solitary System of Pennsylvania, should be made extensively known. There is, perhaps, no one subject that can engross public attention, on which it is more important to arrive at correct conclusions than that of the connexion between crime and punishment, and the best mode of uniting with the latter effective processes for reforming and restoring the criminal to mankind. Though Beccaria was neglected, Howard laughed at, and Romilly and Bentham treated with contempt, for their noble efforts to enlighten the world on the subject of criminal jurisprudence; and though a similar fate, though with less virulence of persecution and scorn, has awaited many worthy efforts of humbler men to enlist mankind in improving and restoring criminals rather than destroying them, still the period is fast approaching when such efforts will be treated with the respect they deserve. It is, for this reason, important to diffuse as widely as possible correct opinions on this subject.

Dr. Lieber, whose opinions are of the highest value, because of the favourable opportunities he has had of forming them—and because they are in opposition to his first impressions, which with all men are so difficult to be abandoned for more just ones—is powerfully supported by other authorities, to the full as important and unobjectionable; namely, William Crawford, Esq., and Whitworth Russell, Esq., Inspectors of Prisons for the Home District in England, both of whom had been sent to America for the express purpose of inspecting the prisons of this country, and had given them all the most thorough examination. Their second report, address-

ed to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, is specially intended to lay before the British Government their opinions of the "Silent System," as far as they had witnessed its operation in such few of the prisons of England as had yet adopted it. They admit its decided superiority to the old system of criminal association, which had hitherto been universally followed in the prisons of Great Britain; but they still contend that it is greatly inferior to the "Separate System" of Philadelphia; and in the development of their opinions, and the statement of the facts and reasons on which these are founded, they specially advert to the discipline of the prison at Auburn, which they had carefully examined, and express their convictions in the following terms:

"We will next consider the evil of recognition, with reference to its effects upon a prisoner who may be led or inclined to repent of his guilt, and to resolve upon an honest course of life. Whether the man really repents, or feels an inclination to return to honest courses, or to listen with serious attention to the admonitions which he may have received, this evil will operate upon him with a disastrous influence. In the former case, by steady perseverance in the path of industry and honesty, he may succeed in gaining the character of a useful member of society; but he will live in constant apprehension of having his good name suddenly and irremediably forfeited by the recognition of an abandoned fellow-prisoner, who may be tempted to expose the past delinquencies of the penitent, of whom, but for the previous acquaintance in prison, he might never have had the slightest knowledge. The separated, isolated villain is comparatively innoxious; it is combination—concentration of force, talent, and artifice—that renders wickedness formidable to society; and this combination is effected, consolidated, and organized within the walls, or at the very gate, of the prison more than anywhere else."

There remains, after this, but one other branch of this subject to make the review of it complete, and that is, to contrast with these proved disadvantages of the Auburn system the great superiority and complete efficiency of the Philadelphia system; and this can be in no way so effectually done as by laying before the reader the brief yet comprehensive summary of Dr. Lieber, as contained in his letter already referred to. In enumerating the benefits of the union of uninterrupted solitude with labour, which is the characteristic of this system, he says:

"1. It prevents effectually contamination, and it alone can effectually prevent it. It allows the offender, at any rate, not to grow worse."

"2. It is essentially both a stern and humane punishment; stern, because solitude is stern in its character, and especially so to men who nearly, without exception, have spent their lives in boisterous intercourse with fellow-criminals; and humane, because it is a privation rather than an infliction. It is mild, and acknowledged as such by the offenders themselves, after the first irksomeness of solitude has passed, especially if they have passed previously through several other prisons or penitentiaries."

"3. It is emphatically graduable and accommodable as no other species of punishment. The offender, undisturbed by others or by new

inflictions of punishment, receives from solitude just that impression which his peculiar case or disposition calls for or is capable of.

"4. Advice and exhortation can be adapted to each single case in no other punishment, so precisely and justly like moral medicine, as in solitary confinement. The religious adviser, assistant, and comforter can enter the solitary cell at any time, and, as all religious conversations with a convict must have much of the character of a confession, the undisturbed cell, overheard by no one, is the very place for this converse. In no other penitentiaries can this religious instruction be given so effectually.

"5. Solitude is the weightiest moral agent to make the thoughtless thoughtful—to reflect, and the only one sufficiently powerful for the criminally thoughtless. Solitude has been sought by the wisest and best of mankind, to prepare themselves for great moral tasks; it is the only means to bring the offender to a more rational course. Labour united with solitude gives steadiness to the thought, and makes it possible to support solitude with ease for those who have not been accustomed to abstract reflection before.

"6. It is the only punishment known which does not irritate anew, does not challenge opposition in mind or body; for it is the only punishment which can dispense with the whip or other means of coercing to obedience, because it takes away the opportunity of offending anew, with the exception of such offences as destroying instruments or materials, for which, again, the more disciplinary means of withholding labour or diminishing rations are sufficient.

"7. It makes the lonely prisoner love labour as faithfully as the dearest companion—a companion who will be with him for life.

"8. It does not deaden shame by exposure; on the contrary, it shames many into repentance, by its absence of all harshness, as I frequently have found. It does not inflict on those who have a strong sense of shame the additional punishment of exposure.

"9. It does not expose the convict to acquaintance, even by night, with other criminals, who out of the prison form a very compact fraternity, to escape from the clutches of which forms the most difficult obstacle in the way of resuming an honest life. The history of innumerable convicts proves this.

"10. It contradicts, for the first time, by irresistible fact, the convicts in their belief that society is at war with them, in which they please themselves so much that frequently they argue as if they were the hunted, the pursued, the injured.

"11. The punishment has, therefore, what I have called an elevating character. It touches the man in the convict, not the brute. The convict sees himself treated as one on whom far different things than stripes can have an effect.

"12. It is, perhaps, the only punishment which allows us to select men for superintendents of prisons, in whom sternness does not overbalance kindness.

"13. It trains the convict in cleanliness, and paying attention to the neatness of his dwelling; it imparts an attention to the room, which becomes the incipient stage of love of home with those who have lived in slouchy disregard of it. It is an old English saying, full of meaning, 'Cleanliness is next to godliness.' A strictly cleanly man of the labouring classes will never be so much exposed to offend against the laws, as a disorderly, dirty person. Cleanliness, a highly important ingredient of national civilization, is equally such in political reform.

"14. All the reasons given in favour of the Pennsylvania plan assume still higher importance with the youthful or first offenders, because their minds are yet more ready to receive good impressions, and they have not yet formed that close association with criminals of older standing.

"15. It appears to me a great advantage of the Pennsylvania system that the prisoner is not prevented by false shame from lending his ear to better counsel, and gradually changing for the better.

"16. The convict thinks in kindness of his keepers, and the memory of the penitentiary is not a galling sore when he has left it, and chooses to live by his labour.

"17. This system depends less upon the skill of the officers, or a long apprenticeship, than the Auburn system, in order to make it answer at all. The Pennsylvania system, therefore, is easier to be introduced.

"18. It is sufficient with our race, and at the stage of civilization we are now in, and no more, which is what a punishment ought to be. This point, which by experience alone, i. e., by close and circumspect observation of reality, not by hasty numbers and rash conclusions, can be decided, appears so to us; and none of us have seen reason as yet to change his opinion.

"19. Finally, it offers the greatest security, being in this superior to all other species of imprisonment."

It is impossible to add to this without weakening its force, except to say that the most careful examination and most mature deliberation make me concur in all the writer's sentiments on this subject; and if any apology should be deemed necessary for citing them at such length, it is to be found in the conviction that there is no one subject more important to the interests of humanity than the right treatment of criminals, and to no country is this of greater importance than to England.

The town or village of Auburn, in which this state-prison is seated, contains about nine hundred houses and six thousand inhabitants. It has seven churches, which are highly ornamental to the town; a beautiful courthouse, with an Ionic portico and circular colonnade, supporting a dome and crowned by a lantern, all in the best architectural taste; an academy, and a museum. The villas on either side of the town are among the prettiest we had seen, and the houses of the interior are substantial and spacious. The American Hotel is an excellent establishment; the streets are well proportioned; the River Owasco runs through a part of the town, passing by the state-prison, and furnishes water-power for mills and manufactures; and, taken altogether, we thought it, from our first and second impressions, to be one of the prettiest towns on the western route.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Journey to Syracuse.—Male Academy and Female Seminary.—Salt Springs at Salina.—Water-lime.—Railroad.—Locks.—Canal.—Tunnel under the Canal.—Depth of Vegetable Mould.—Spontaneous Vegetation.—Muster of the Militia.—Unpopularity of this Body.—Museum of Syracuse.—Scriptural Group of Saul, Samuel, and the Witch of Endor.—Onondaga Indians.

WE left Auburn on the morning of Monday, the 10th of September, at seven o'clock, and travelled by the railcars on a wooden railroad, drawn by two horses, to Syracuse, the distance being twenty-five miles, and the time occupied about three hours. We found comfortable accommodations at the Syracuse House Hotel, and remained there for two days.

The town of Syracuse is one of the most recently settled of all the larger places along this route, it being not more than twelve years since the first house in it was built; yet it already possesses about 800 dwellings, many large warehouses and stores, an excellent hotel, with many smaller but still comfortable public inns, a bank, a courthouse, seven churches, including Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Universalist, and Unitarian, and a population of nearly 7000 persons. It is pleasantly situated, having the Onondaga Lake about a mile from its northwestern edge, and fine undulating hills, with the elevated village of Onondaga, formerly the county-town, on its southern border; while gentler elevations, east and west, connect it with the level land that extends along the line of the great Erie Canal in these directions. Syracuse, indeed, like many other places along this tract, owes its first existence and its present prosperity to this canal, which has caused many villages and towns to spring up and flourish along its whole extent, that, without its agency, would not, for many years at least, have been erected.

At this moment Syracuse enjoys the benefit of lying both in the stage-route and in the line of canal conveyance from the Hudson to Lake Erie; so that more than 1000 persons, by all the different conveyances, pass through it, on an average, in each day. A railroad is in progress from hence to Utica, which cannot fail to increase this number greatly; and the elements of prosperity in and around the town itself are so abundant as to make it certain that in a very few years its size and population will be doubled.

The streets are regular and of great breadth, from 80 to 100 feet; the houses and stores are, many of them, of stone and brick; and few, except the original buildings, continue to be of wood. The courthouse is a large and substantial edifice, though it lies beyond the verge of the town on the north, instead of being, as is

usual in similar cases, in the centre. The cause of this inappropriate situation is said to have been a contest between the neighbouring villages of Salina and Syracuse as to which should have the courthouse, and thus bring to it the transaction of the county business; when the relative strength of the rival parties was found to be so nearly balanced that a compromise was recommended, which was agreed upon, and, like most compromises, satisfied neither party; for the courthouse now stands nearly midway between the two villages, and in a position equally inconvenient to both.

A fine academy for the education of male youths stands on the eastern verge of the town. It is a substantial brick structure, and cost 20,000 dollars in the erection. It has at present 60 pupils, and is increasing in reputation. It was founded at first by individual subscription in shares; but now receives, like other public institutions of this nature, an annual grant in aid from the Legislature of the state, in proportion to the number of pupils engaged in studying the higher branches of education. A female seminary has also been just established at Syracuse, in which a classical and mathematical, as well as an ornamental, education will be given to young ladies on nearly the same plan, and at the same expense, as at the Ontario Female Seminary at Canandaigua; so rapidly are the means of education multiplying all around, to keep pace with the increasing population.

In the immediate vicinity of Syracuse are some remarkable salt-springs, which are producing great gain to their proprietors, affording extensive occupation to labourers, yielding a considerable revenue to the state, and attracting population every day to this quarter. There are four special localities in which these springs are at present worked, and around each a village of some size has gathered. There is one at Salina, one at Liverpool, and one at Geddes, three villages surrounding the borders of the Onondaga Lake (which is six miles long and two miles broad), distant from each other only two or three miles, and one at Syracuse, an equal distance from them all.

We visited Salina, the oldest and largest of these springs, in company with the superintendent, Mr. Wright, to whom we had been introduced by Mr. Marsh, of the Syracuse Bank, who accompanied us also in our excursion, and from both of whom we received every information and attention we could desire. It appears that the salt-spring here was well known to the Onondaga Indians inhabiting the borders of this lake long before any white settlers had come among them; and they had discovered it in the usual way of tracking the wild deer to it, when they came at certain seasons to lick the salt from off the surface of the earth; the spot being hence called, in the language of the country, "a deer-lick." Since the settlement of the whites, however, the value of this spring has become well known, and, accordingly, extensive works for the

manufacture of salt have gradually sprung up all around ; so that what the grain and flour trade is doing for Rochester, the salt-trade appears to be accomplishing for Syracuse.

The four salt-springs already named are found at the depths of from 50 to 100 feet beneath the surface. From thence the water is pumped up by a water-power taken from the surplus or waste waters of the Oswego Canal. It comes out of the earth in the purest and most transparent state of clearness, at the rate of about 300 gallons per minute ; and here at Salina it is forced up to a height of nearly 200 feet above the level of the soil, to admit of its being supplied from a general reservoir to the salt-works of Salina and Syracuse, the latter a distance of a mile and a half, as the Syracuse spring is not sufficiently abundant to supply the works of the town, and the villages of Geddes and Liverpool use their own springs for their manufacture.

The mode of producing the salt is partly by solar evaporation of the water from shallow vats, partly by boiling the water in large caldrons or kettles, imbedded over an extensive furnace, and partly by passing hot air in metallic tubes through the water in vats, instead of exposing it to solar or furnace heat. The saltiness of the water furnished by these springs may be judged of by the fact that forty gallons of it will produce a bushel of salt by either of the processes named, whereas it takes 360 gallons of the seawater of the ocean to produce the same result. The amount of actual salt in the spring water is just sixty per cent., the taste being that of pure salt without any foreign admixture.

At Salina, the quantity of salt made varies from 12,000 to 16,000 bushels per day ; but from all the four springs at least 25,000 bushels per day are produced. The quantity of wood consumed as fuel in the furnaces—though the greater portion of the salt is made by solar evaporation—is at least 600 cords per day, or not less, at the least, than 200,000 cords per annum, each cord weighing on the average about two tons. Already, indeed, the apprehension begins to be entertained that wood fuel will be scarce, though the forests have been but a few years under the axe ; and measures are even now in contemplation for bringing up supplies of coals, by the Ohio and Lake Erie, from the western parts of Pennsylvania. As the springs have never yet failed, or even sensibly diminished, and have never been known to freeze, the manufacture goes on throughout the entire year where the furnace and the heated tubes are used, and those works depending on solar evaporation are only interrupted during the short period of extreme severity in the winter.

In all the treaties for the purchase of lands from the Indians and the sale of estates to private individuals, the State Government reserves to itself the right to all minerals and mineral springs that exist at the time or may be subsequently discovered ; and, accord-

ingly, the right to work such mines or springs is leased out by the State Government to chartered companies or private individuals on easy terms. The revenue arising from this goes to the general fund of the state, and saves taxation in any other shape. This particular impost of six cents, or threepence English per bushel, paid as a salt-tax by the consumer, is by law appropriated to the liquidation of the debt contracted in making the Erie Canal; so that when this debt is extinguished, the tax, small as it is, will cease. At the recommendation of the state geologists, who have been recently employed in making an accurate geological survey of the State of New-York, and whose last report presented to the Legislature is full of interest, the director of the works at Salina is causing the earth to be bored to a depth of 600 feet, in order to ascertain whether any bed of mineral salt may be found in the strata; it being at present wholly unknown from whence these springs derive their strong saline qualities, and whether they are impregnated from beds near or remote.

The Seneca River runs along at the northwestern end of the Onondaga Lake, and opens for it a communication with the Oswego River, which again communicates with Lake Ontario; so that while, by means of the Erie Canal, Syracuse can send her supplies of salt to the Hudson River and New-York on the Atlantic, and by Buffalo to Detroit and Chicago on the upper lakes of Michigan and Huron, she can also supply, by the Oswego communication, the whole of Upper and Lower Canada across the Lake Ontario. Already there is an export of more than 2000 barrels per day, each barrel containing three bushels; and the cooperages here, though making this number of barrels, are beginning to devise means of increasing their supplies, by the introduction of an ingenious machine, which makes the staves, planes them, sets them up, and hoops and heads the barrel in an incredibly short space of time, so that they will soon be able to meet any demand made upon them.

Near the salt-springs a peculiar kind of lime is found in great quantities, which is called "water-lime." It has the peculiar property of forming a cement which hardens under water, and it is therefore much better adapted to submarine masonry, such as bridges, locks, sides of canals, and works of this description, than any other cement yet known. Large quantities of this are used along the line of the Erie Canal, and a still greater proportion is continually exported to different parts of the Union.

After inspecting the salt-works, we went to see the labours now carrying forward connected with the enlargement of the Erie Canal, and with the making of the new railroad from Syracuse to Utica, which both lie at a small village called Lodi, about a mile to the eastward of the town. In this excursion we were accompanied by Mr. Wilkinson, the engineer of the railroad, whose ready

communication of all the information we wished was as agreeable as it was advantageous.

The extent of this railroad will be fifty-two miles, and the estimated cost of the whole line, for every mile of which the contracts are in actual operation, will be 800,000 dollars. It was begun in the autumn of last year, and will be completed in the autumn of the next, so that the whole will have been executed in two years. There are at present upward of 5000 labourers employed in different parts of it, and it is expected that in the next spring and summer 10,000 at least will be required. Those now employed are nearly all English and Irish, with a very few Germans. The English are generally employed in excavating the line of road by contract, and are paid eight cents, or fourpence English, per cubic yard, at which rate they make easily one dollar twenty-five cents, or five shillings sterling per day.

The Irish are employed as labourers at day-work, and are paid a dollar per day. In all the contracts made with the men, it is expressly stipulated that no spirits shall be drunk by any of them, and the penalty of disobedience is immediate discharge. They are thus uniformly sober, and those disgraceful riots which so often take place among the labourers employed on the canals and railroads in England are here unknown. The appearance, order, and good condition of the workmen is as striking as their sobriety; and large as are the numbers working together, the mere absence of intoxicating drink is such as to make them indisposed to any violence either of conduct or language. The instances of men's leaving are very few indeed, and none substitute any other beverage except tea, coffee, milk, or water, upon which, the engineer assured us, they performed their work better and with less fatigue than he had ever known men do it who drank either spirits, cider, or beer. This railroad is undertaken by a company of shareholders, who have a charter from the State Government for fifty years; but during all this period their maximum rate of charge for passengers is fixed at four cents each, or twopence English, per mile.

The part of the works which attracted our greatest admiration was a double set of locks making for the enlarged canal, and an arched tunnel of stone for the railroad to pass *under* the canal. They were each as fine specimens of masonry as could be seen in any country, whether for the material, the size of the blocks, or the excellence of the workmanship. The stone is a hard and compact limestone, little inferior to granite, of which there are immense quarries in the Onondaga Hills, to the south of the town, extending over a range of six miles in length, and producing masses of any size, without veins, shales, or fissures. The stone, indeed, is so much valued for massive works, that the Rochester aqueduct across the Genesee River, by means of a bridge, is now constructing of it; and thousands of tons are exported along the Erie Canal every year, this and the water-lime being in equal repute and demand.

In consequence of the softness of the soil in some parts over which the railroad is to run, it was deemed necessary to drive down large piles perpendicularly, and, making their upper ends level, to place the rails along upon these. It was found, however, that the soil of loose earth, or pure vegetable mould, was so deep as to descend in some places 60 feet before the piles obtained a firm footing; and the average depth of this mould was from 30 to 40 feet throughout. This discovery has already raised the value of the land all along this part of the tract, which is, moreover, close to the town of Syracuse, at Lodi. In this spot, therefore, may be seen, from the same point of view, newly-cleared patches of forest-land, with all the stumps of the trees yet remaining in the soil; and within a few yards of this, grand works of masonry going on, in double locks for the enlarged canal, and a subaqueous tunnel for the railroad, on a scale of magnitude and in a style of workmanship which would have done honour to the old Sicilian Syracuse herself; so that, if the tyrant Dionysius could rise from his grave and be transported here, he would not be ashamed of the young efforts of the infant Syracuse of the West.

This rich earthy mould, when taken up from the greatest depth and spread out on the surface, vegetates spontaneously, producing a variety of the ordinary shrubs and grasses, from seeds previously imbedded at these great depths in the earth, and germinating only when brought to the surface. When a manure of gypsum is laid over it, the production is invariably a fine crop of white clover; but when no particular preparation of it is made, the produce is of various kinds, but mostly similar to the surrounding productions of the country. On this subject the following observations of Mr. Latrobe are worth quoting, as they corroborate the view here taken, though applied to other localities. He says,

"No sooner does the axe of the woodman or the accidental burning of the forests destroy one class of trees and brushwood, a class that may have apparently covered the soil for centuries, than another race, perfectly distinct, rises, as though by magic, from the disturbed and discoloured soil, and covers it with beauty. The proofs of the almost universal principle of spontaneous vegetation throughout both the forest and prairie lands of the New Continent, are so well known and acknowledged as to need no additional confirmation at the present day. We have met with continual evidences of its truth in the East and the West.

"It would seem that the seeds of one class of plants and forest-trees must be deposited, by some catastrophe, beyond the action of light, heat, and atmospheric air; where they lie, supplanted by another growth, and are forgotten; preserving, however, the vital principle for centuries in a dormant or torpid state, till accident or tillage brings them to a position favourable to their reproduction to light and life. Thus it is that marl dug from pits thirty feet deep in some parts of the Union, on being spread over the soil, becomes instantly covered with white clover: and in New-Jersey this is the case with mud taken up from the bottom of the Delaware, and used for purposes of manure."

During our stay at Syracuse, the militia of the state was muster-

ed and reviewed ; and we had a repetition of many of the scenes we had previously witnessed at Rochester, though they were here presented in a broader and more ludicrous light. To supply the place of a standing army, each state has a militia of its own ; and to this body legally belongs every male person in the state, between the ages of 18 and 45, who are not exempted by law on account of public service rendered in some other shape. They furnish their own dresses, arms, and accoutrements, and are called out for muster four times in the year. The penalty of non-attendance is five dollars for each private, and for the officers larger sums in proportion ; but a great number prefer paying the fine to giving their personal attendance ; and the amount of the fines is appropriated to the fund of the state for military purposes.

Those to whom the payment of the fine is inconvenient, and who therefore attend in person, have laboured for some time past to bring the whole muster and exercise into ridicule, and they certainly succeeded at Syracuse at least. For many years, according to the testimony of most persons, the military spirit has been upon the decline in the United States ; war is looked upon as irreligious and unprofitable, and for both these reasons it is unpopular ; and, as a consequence of this, less veneration is felt and less honour shown towards the members of the military profession than formerly. It is found that internal peace is best preserved by the reciprocal action of mutual interests between man and man ; and certainly, except in the slave states, and when anti-abolition riots are got up in the free ones, the condition of the whole population is so sober and orderly, that no force, civil or military, is ever necessary to be called in to maintain the public peace.

Being thus secure from internal disorder, the people think they have nothing to fear from external aggression ; and if they had, these four days' muster and exercise in the year would not prepare men for better resisting it, while the personal service and exhibition is an inconvenient tax upon the time and labour of the middle classes of the community. They are therefore anxious to get rid of this useless service altogether ; and for this purpose they do all they can to make it ridiculous, obeying the law while it is law, but operating as much as they can on public opinion to get it repealed.

The muster began in the following manner. A drummer and fifer paraded through the public streets, beating a quick march ; these were first joined by one recruit or militia-man, in his ordinary working dress, but with a leathern belt, musket, and fixed bayonet. He was soon joined by another in a frock, with a musket, and, in lieu of a bayonet, a tall white feather stuck in the barrel. Next to him followed a party of young men, dressed grotesquely on purpose, each with wooden poles of different heights, thickness, and colours ; then a man in uniform, well equipped ; after him a dozen others, all differently dressed ; and so they accumulated

their numbers as they marched along, all following in single file from street to street in succession. A second band, composed of two long drums, two fifes, and a bugle, beat up for a second party, which they picked up, one by one, in the same manner. After this a third band, and then a fourth and fifth, till about noon there were perhaps a dozen different bands, all very feeble, followed each by from fifty to one hundred militia-men, in every conceivable variety of dress and accoutrements, and all in studied irregularity and disorder.

They then met all together in the open square near the centre of the town, and were there joined by the staff on horseback, when the bands all united in one, the long drums being the most numerous of the instruments. Forming in double file, they were next marched away to the parade-ground in the field, about a mile off, and there exercised in the manual exercise, which was perhaps the most ridiculous of all, as every one studied to do the thing he was not commanded to do, and to leave undone the thing that he was commanded to do. The officers, being just as averse to this drilling as the men, took no pains to correct these defects, so that no one could be improved by such a muster as this.

After parade they were marched back into the town again, both horse and foot being by this time literally covered with dust; and, after a few evolutions displayed in the square, they were dismissed, and broke up in "most admired disorder."

I inquired of those most competent to form an opinion on the subject, how it was that a law so generally obnoxious as this should so long remain upon the statute-book, and thus outlive its estimation in public opinion. The uniform answer I received to my inquiries was this: that a number of legal young men get appointed to county and municipal offices, in which they have to exercise a jurisdiction over the militia; that the profits arising from this were sufficient to induce them to act in concert, to preserve their privileges; and that their co-operative influence over the members of the State Legislature is sufficient to prevail upon them not to alter this law.

One great branch of expense, on which most of the fines for non-attendance are absorbed, is the holding of courts-martial over officers and men for various alleged breaches of discipline. These courts are organized with all due formality, presided over by a judge-advocate, and attended by witnesses, &c.; and the proceedings in them are carried on to a most vexatious length and inconvenient frequency, for the profit which they afford to the office-holders. This occasions great annoyance to the persons summoned, tried, and convicted, as well as even to those who may be acquitted, as to each and all of them the loss of time and expense is considerable. It is agreed on all hands, however, that this cannot last much longer.

One very pleasing feature of the scene was this: that though upward of a thousand men had been all day in motion in the heat and dust, and must have been both thirsty and fatigued, we did not see a single instance of any one being intoxicated, or the least affected by liquor; nor were there, as there would have been at any English assemblage of this description, any booths or places for the sale of drink, strewing every man's path with temptation. The same general prevalence of temperance we observed all along our route; for neither at the public tables at which we dined, sometimes in company with 100 persons, nor even when the Canandaigua Convention had drawn so many in from all parts of the country, did we see more, perhaps, than one solitary bottle of wine on the table, almost everybody drinking water, and not seeming to desire any other substitute; indeed, we never once saw spirits, cider, or beer on any table in all our extensive journey.

In the afternoon of our last day at Syracuse we went to see the Museum, at which two fine large serpents of the Anaconda tribe were to be seen, just fresh from South America, imported in a ship to New-York. This, like most of the museums we had yet seen in the country towns, was very poor in objects of natural history, or even in curiosities of any interest. They are not, as in England, attached to some literary institution, with a scientific man as a director, but they are the property of very unlearned persons, who use them as a sort of provincial theatre, for which they are in many instances a substitute. In the daytime a flag is hoisted on the building, or sometimes hung out of the window. A small band of three or four instruments is then employed to play at a balcony or other place in front; the band here consisted of a wretched violin, a hurdy-gurdy, and a long drum; but this seemed to attract passengers, who entered from the street, paid their shilling admission, gazed round their half hour, looked at the serpents, the stuffed beasts, and the waxwork figures, which attracted the largest share of attention, and then departed.

These waxwork figures, I observed, formed a prominent part of every provincial museum that I had yet seen. They represented, generally, prominent characters of the American Revolution, and sometimes popular officers of the United States navy and army; but the resemblances were so imperfect, and the dress and accompaniments so awkward and ill-fitted, that the most intimate acquaintances would have found it difficult to recognise their friends but for the inscription of their names over the figures themselves. There was one group here, however, which was even more attractive to the visitors than the figures of Washington, Franklin, and General Jackson; this was the scriptural personages of King Saul, the ghost of the Prophet Samuel, and the Witch of Endor. The former was arrayed in all his royal robes, with his diadem on his head, though the scriptural account of the interview represents

Saul as disguising himself, by putting on other garments: the ghost of Samuel was dressed in a white calico sheet, thrown around his head and body, leaving only the face and beard visible, and the Witch of Endor was dressed in an old-fashioned English gown of black bombasin, with a long waist and stays, her head covered with a pointed hat like the witches in Macbeth, and over her shoulders was a printed cotton handkerchief of Glasgow or Manchester manufacture! Yet this was thought an admirable group, and was evidently the most attractive of all the objects contained in the Museum. At night, a cheap theatre for farces, songs, dances, and similar entertainments is opened; and this, being frequented by labourers and children, forms the chief source of their revenue.

During our stay at the Museum there were many Indians present, especially women and children, many of them very gayly dressed, with scarlet blankets, feathers, beads, and trinkets, and all appearing to enjoy the music very much, as well as to be greatly amused with the effect of a very poor electrical machine on those who held its chain. I ascertained, on inquiry, that these Indians belonged to the tribe of the Onondagas, who have a small settlement near Syracuse, and that free admission is given to them whenever they come to town, as the sight of them in the windows and about the buildings draws strangers to enter, for the sake of seeing them more at leisure than they could do in passing the streets. The females were more than usually gay and attractive in their apparel, and appeared, from their smiling countenances and flaunting manner, to have learned the art of coquetry from the whites, in which their visit to the Museum for the purpose of attracting others gave them abundant opportunities of practice, without much improvement to their morals.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Journey from Syracuse to Utica.—Beauty of the Country.—Commencement of the Autumnal Tints.—Fruitfulness of American Orchards.—Fruit given to feed Cattle, instead of making Cider.—Lectures at Utica.—Description of the City.—History and progressive Increase.—Convention of the Whigs.—Excursion to Trenton Falls.—Stratification of the rocky Bed.—Fossil Remains.—Favosite.—Description of the Falls.—Fatal Accidents.—Beauty of the Scenery.—Variety of Views.—Comparison with Niagara.—Journey from Utica to Schenectady.—Beauty of the Mohawk Valley.—Journey from Schenectady to Saratoga.

HAVING examined everything of interest in and around Syracuse, we left that town for Utica on Wednesday, the 12th of September, taking, as was our usual practice where railroads did not exist, an extra-coach for our party, and thus travelling at our ease and pleasure. We left Syracuse at half past eight, and reached Utica

about five, being thus more than eight hours in performing a distance of fifty miles, though we had a lightly-laden coach and four good horses all the way; but the roads are really so bad, even in what the people of the country think the best parts of them, that the travelling is both slow and fatiguing in a very high degree. I think 200 miles might be performed in England with much less muscular motion, and with far less sense of fatigue, than 50 miles on the stage-roads of America.

As our route was the same as that by which we had before travelled when going westward, we observed nothing new beyond those changes which the more advanced state of the season had produced. The beautiful and extensive landscape views were as striking as ever, and impressed us at every step with the boundless fertility of the country, and the certainty of its future greatness, when an increased population shall have filled up all the present unoccupied tracts of forest and uncleared land, of which there are still millions of acres untouched by the axe of the woodman. The harvest of grain had all been gathered in, and was unusually abundant. The autumnal tints had begun to appear upon the trees, and gave additional richness to the foliage; and the orchards, of which we saw hundreds in the course of our journey, many adjoining the roadside, others attached to isolated dwellings, and others intermingled with the woods and fields, were literally bending beneath the weight of their fruit.

Abundant, however, as is the supply from the orchards of this part of the country, scarcely any of their produce is now devoted to the making of cider. The temperance societies have proved, to the entire satisfaction of the farmer, that it is more economical and more profitable to him to feed his cattle on the fruit than to convert it into a beverage which does not benefit, any more than simple water would do, those who use it ever so moderately, and which greatly injures those who take it to excess. This new appropriation of the fruits of the orchard to food instead of drink, being found by experience to be the most profitable to the grower, is likely to remain permanent, and cider has accordingly disappeared as a general beverage of the peasantry.

We remained in Utica three days, on the evenings of which I delivered three lectures descriptive of the monuments of Egypt, to a smaller audience than any I had yet found in either of the towns of the state, the number scarcely exceeding 100, though the population is above 12,000. This was the more remarkable, as the lectures were announced under the auspices of a committee, at the head of which was the mayor of the city, the president of the Young Men's Association, and about a dozen of the most influential and important men of the place. I learned from these, however, that Utica was undoubtedly far behind many towns of much less population in literary taste, and that, consequently, the number

who took any interest in promoting the diffusion of literary information was comparatively few indeed ; while the great majority of the community were so immersed in business, that they could not, or would not, afford the time to turn aside from their ordinary occupations for anything but food and rest, and even to these they devoted much less time than the demands of nature for both require. This is, indeed, characteristic of the business-men of the country generally, who are so entirely absorbed in their various pursuits, that any and everything which does not strictly advance these is thought to be unworthy of their attention ; a fault which time alone is likely to correct.

Utica is very pleasantly situated, and is a remarkably fine town. It stands on the southern bank of the Mohawk River, just before its entrance into the valley of that name, and the great Erie Canal (now in progress of enlargement here) passes right through its centre. It is a much older place than Buffalo or Rochester, though not so large or so populous as either. A fort existed here, called Fort Schuyler, long before the war of the Revolution, some remains of which are still visible ; and in its immediate neighbourhood a party of German settlers, who had fixed their abode here, were routed by the Indians, some being captured and made prisoners, and others, flying for safety, took shelter in some of the settlements farther east.

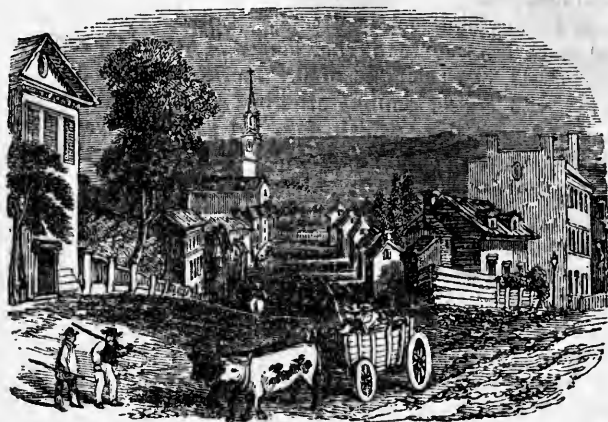
In 1784 the permanent settlement of this spot commenced by a single family, who took up their position about four miles west of Fort Schuyler ; and in 1789 several other families were tempted to pitch their dwellings on the spot where Utica now stands. This nucleus once formed, soon drew others around it, and in 1798 it was advanced to a sufficient size to obtain a charter as an incorporated village ; so rapid was its increase after this, that in 1832 it rose to the dignity of a city, and was incorporated as such. The progressive increase of its population has been steady from the commencement, and is now going on with an accumulated force, as will be seen by the following return :

In 1813 it was	1700	In 1826 it was	6040
1816	2828	1828	7460
1820	2972	1830	8323
1823	4017	1835	9500

And in the present year, 1838, the population exceeds 12,000 ; the advantages of its position as a depôt of supplies for all the surrounding country attracting merchants and traders every year to settle here.

The city, like all the other towns of this state, is well laid out ; the streets regular, of ample breadth, 100 feet on the average, well furnished with flag-pavements for foot-passengers, and better paved in the centre than most places in this country. The wooden houses of the original settlers are almost wholly supplanted by large brick

dwellings, and store-edifices of brick or stone. The stores are numerous and well furnished, and the whole place wears an air of great commercial activity and prosperity.



Of public buildings there are an abundance proportioned to the population of the city, including a courthouse for the transaction of the county business, and no less than 18 churches, of which the Presbyterians have the greatest number; the others include Episcopalians, Methodists, Baptists, Universalists, and Unitarians. There are, besides these, several institutions connected with education and the diffusion of useful information, including a high-school, an academy, a female institute or seminary, a lyceum, a gymnasium, a museum, and a mechanics' hall, where the members of the Young Men's Association chiefly meet, and where a reading and news room is open to them, to which all strangers in the town have free admission. The materials for the cultivation of future literary taste are therefore provided and set in motion, though the effects hitherto produced by them all are only just beginning to be perceptible; but time, which is requisite for the accomplishment of all improvements, will bring the fuller development of this taste in its train. Business is the chief object and pursuit of all classes; and, for the accommodation of persons thus engaged, nothing is wanting. There are five hotels, three banks, several insurance companies, three daily newspapers, several weekly ones, and a religious journal called "The Baptist Register," as well as a magazine, published here.

During our stay at Utica a Whig Convention was held to determine on the Whig candidates for the offices of governor and lieutenant-governor of the state, the election for which takes place in November next. The town was therefore very full, and the hotels so crowded that it was difficult to procure accommodation.

To such conventions it is usual for each Congressional district in the state to send as many delegates as they are entitled to send representatives to the Legislature of the State. To this number New-York City, from its great population, contributes 11, while no other district sends more than four. The state is divided into 33 Congressional districts, by which votes are given for members of the Lower House, or House of Assembly, of which there are 128, and into eight Senatorial districts, by which the votes are given for the members of the Upper House, or Senators, of which there are 32, each district sending four members. The members of the Lower House are all elected annually, and those of the Upper House for four years, one member for each district going out each year, and the vacancy being filled up by an annual election. The suffrage for both houses includes every male citizen above 21 years of age, and the mode of voting is in both cases by ballot.

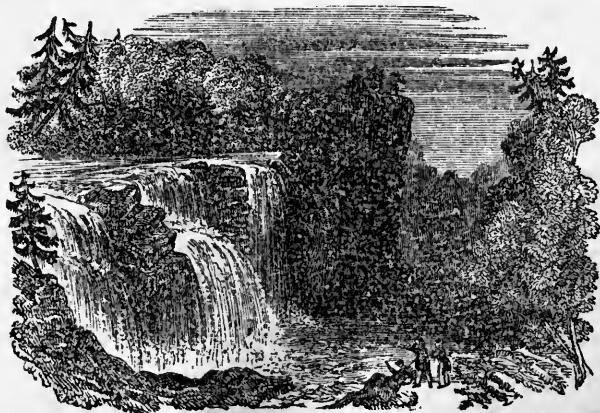
The Convention, thus consisting of 128 members, corresponding with the number of the representatives in the House of Assembly, was quite full ; but, in addition to those who came officially, a great many of the citizens and voters were drawn in from the surrounding country as visitors and spectators. The meetings were all on one side, as is usual in this country, and all the preliminary ones were secret. The public meeting at which the nomination took place was held in the courthouse ; and it having been ascertained by the preliminary meetings (this being, indeed, their object) which of the several persons named as candidates was likely to command the greatest number of votes, these were selected and put in nomination, the minority yielding up their particular views or preferences in favour of the persons chosen by the majority ; thus evincing that sort of unanimity which is shown by an English jury when the minority gives way to the majority, and present their verdict as unanimous ; or by the cabinet ministers of England, when they make any public act what is called a "cabinet measure," and come down to Parliament declaring themselves to be of one mind, and not only voting, but sometimes speaking, in favour of a measure in the House which they had just before opposed in the Council-chamber, the unanimity in each case being only obtained by a sacrifice of truth and principle.

From Utica we made an excursion to Trenton Falls, this being the nearest convenient point on the western route from which they can be visited. They are distant from Utica only fourteen miles, in a northerly direction ; but the roads are so much worse than the stage-roads in general, that it takes three hours, with the best horses, to accomplish the journey. We accordingly left Utica at eight o'clock, and reached the hotel at the Falls at eleven, having stopped twice to water the horses by the way. The drive is beautiful, from the extensive and delightful views with which it abounds. From the ridge of the elevated land, that lies about midway be-

tween Utica and the Falls, the view is really superb, embracing distant mountains, successive ridges of forests, swelling uplands, and cultivated plains, containing every element that can contribute to the sustenance and enjoyment of their occupiers. The hotel is commodious and well furnished, and there are two or three villages with good inns on the road, so that every requisite accommodation can be procured.

The stream on which the Trenton Falls occur is called the West Canada Creek, though it is a river of some length, rising in the north of the State of New-York, and joining its waters with the stream of the Mohawk, at a distance of twenty-two miles from the Falls. At this spot the bed of the river is upward of 100 feet below the upper edge of the banks, so that the stream itself is not visible until you are upon its very edge; but a dark and deep hollow between the eastern and western hills that overhang it on either side indicates the course of the valley through which it runs.

The hotel is not more than 100 yards from the western bank, and this short way is through a thick mass of trees, which ascend from the river close to the edge of the lawn. At the end of the walk you arrive at the place of descent, where five broad ladders, or series of steps, with hand-rails, make the passage perfectly safe and easy to the bed of the stream. At the time of our visit the water was low, no rain having fallen for many weeks, so that we saw more of the rocky bed, and of the different strata composing it, than is visible when the water is high; though, at the seasons when this is the case, in the months of April and November, the increased body of the flood gives greater force and grandeur to the cataracts; but then, on the other hand, the difficulty and danger of visiting every part of them is much greater.



The depth of the rocky bed over which the river runs, and on which we were now enabled to walk, is upward of 100 feet from

the top of the overhanging banks, and the breadth across the ravine at the top is about 200 feet. The stream, when at the fullest, is about 150 feet in breadth; but at the present time it did not exceed fifty, and in some of the narrowest parts was less than twenty. The sides of the lofty banks presented nearly perpendicular cliffs, exhibiting a vast number of thin strata or laminæ of transition-rock, of which the patient perseverance of Mr. Sherman (grandson of Roger Sherman, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence) has counted 400 separate layers, varying from one to eighteen inches thick. The lower strata are of what is called compact fœtid carbonate of lime, and these abound most with organic or fossil remains; each layer, however, having fossils peculiar to itself. Some of the middle strata, about fifty feet below the upper surface, contained shells like those in the bed of the Genesee River at Rochester; others, the 400th stratum particularly, contained trilobites, of which, it is said, no perfect specimens have been obtained entire, except at this spot, either in Europe or America; and even here it is very difficult to get them without their being more or less mutilated.

Its generic name, first given by Dr. Dekay, of New-York, is the *Isotelas Gigas*. Its ordinary size is from one to two inches long, from half an inch to an inch broad, and from a quarter of an inch to half an inch thick; its head is unusually large for the size of its body, occupying one fourth its whole length, and its body is divided longitudinally into three lobes (from whence its name), with transverse stripes, like rings, or ridges, or scales, overlapping each other. They occur abundantly at Dudley in Warwickshire, being found in the limestone there, and were at first called "Dudley fossils." They are now known, however, to be abundant in other parts of England, always in limestone, and some have also been found in Germany and Sweden, but the most perfect specimens are said to be here; one recently obtained by the keeper of the hotel, and which we saw, was the largest ever found, being 8 inches in length by 4 in breadth, beautifully marked, and perfect in all its parts: he asked 300 dollars, or £60 sterling, for it, and believed he should get 500 dollars for it if he kept it a few years!

The animal, now extinct, having a sort of slip at the termination of the side-lobes, like an Indian paddle, it is inferred that it could readily swim, and these slips being not only movable, but crustaceous, it is also conjectured that it could as readily crawl at the bottom of the sea, to which it once belonged. Another fossil is found here, called the Favosite, on which Mr. Sherman has the following curious observations:

"I have hazarded, to several, the novel conjecture that the Favosite—found here in the greatest abundance, from one eighth of an inch to six inches in diameter at the base, and from two to nine superstructures, some containing 6 or 800,000 columnus—is a miniature exempli-

cation of columnar basaltes at the Giants' Causeway and other places; which, if my conjecture is correct, must have been the production of a gigantic order of marine antediluvian (not to say antimundane) polypi. Whether the substance which composes these columnar forms is lime, silex, basalt, or other substance, so exactly do they correspond to each other in their prominent but very singular peculiarities, that I am unable to doubt it. There is one single point only in which I have not had opportunity to make a comparison, viz., as to the circular perforations in the parities of the cell, by which the mass becomes one connected system. I am not advised whether any such thing has been observed in columnar basaltes, i. e., in the prism, or space of column between the articulations. The hollow specimens or the weather-worn summits are those alone where we are authorized to expect this demonstration, and where, in view of the entire correspondence in every particular, I have no doubt it can and will be found. It would be a miracle in nature that there should be a perfect correspondence in twenty particulars, and yet a failure in the last. The basaltic columns must, of course, be mammoth favosites."

From the depth of the ravine, the singular appearance of the countless lines of horizontal strata in the perpendicular cliffs, the rich clothing of foliage which crown these summits, and often lines their sides, the solitude of the spot, and the turbulent rushing and roaring of the waters, as well as the beauty and variety of the views either up or down the stream, the prospect was full of beauty, uniting the wildness and softness of nature in an unusual degree. We walked up from hence along the rocky platform of the western bank, which at the present time was perfectly easy, though, when the river is full, it is necessary to hold on by chains fastened to the cliff, to avoid the danger of falling into the stream: a fate that has befallen two young ladies, one, Miss Suydam, of New-York, in 1827, and another, Miss Thorne, of the same city, a few years later.

This brought us to the first Falls, which are called Sherman's Falls, and are about thirty-five feet high. The appearance was picturesque rather than grand, and pleasing rather than sublime; the impression, even of the picturesque and pleasing, was derived more from the surrounding scenery than from the Fall itself. A little below this, a safe and well-secured wooden bridge is thrown across the stream, by which a passage is effected to the eastern bank; and, ascending thence to a height called the Pinnacle, a fine view is commanded of the upper and lower Falls, and the deep gorge of the ravine.

Descending again to the bed of the river, and recrossing the bridge, a series of ladders and paths lead higher up the western bank, along which you walk till you arrive at what are called the High Falls, of which there are three separate cascades, the upper one having a descent of forty-eight feet, the second eleven, and the third or last thirty-seven; the whole, including the perpendicular and sloping descents, making one hundred and nine feet. This is, on the whole, the finest point of the Falls, the scenery and the cat-

aracts together forming a sublime and beautiful picture; and in the season of the floods it must possess terror as well as beauty.

From hence we again ascended over the broken ledges of the rocks, the several strata of the limestone shaling off from each other, in thicknesses of from four to eight inches, making a series of natural steps, by each ledge projecting out below and in advance of the one above it; so that, if persons possess confidence, nothing can be safer than the foothold obtained.

Above these high Falls is a house of refreshment, where we were all glad to halt; and though the provender was very limited in variety—biscuits, cheese, and sweet cakes being the only food to be obtained—neither bread nor butter being in the catalogue, yet our climbing exercise had given us appetites, for which anything wholesome had a rich zest; and here we halted to repose and recruit. The view from hence is also exquisitely beautiful, and may be gazed upon for hours without tiring. There are three other Falls even above this, called "The Mill Dam," "The Cascades," and "The Upper Falls;" and each has beauties of its own that are quite worth the fatigue of the walk to examine and enjoy, though these cascades are not more than fourteen, eighteen, and twenty feet in perpendicular fall.

The winding path which leads from the last point of inspection back to the hotel is through a dense primeval forest, the shade of which was most grateful during the heat of the day, for our excursion occupied about three hours, from eleven to two. Besides the pleasure it afforded us from its shade, the path brought us every now and then to the immediate brink of the precipice overhanging the deep valley on its western edge, and gave us frequent opportunities of looking down into the magnificent ravine below. The whole difference of elevation between the point where the first rapid commences, just above the Upper Fall, to the place where the last rapid terminates, beyond the lowest, or Conrad's Fall, is 387 feet, in a distance of five miles; but in walking along the edge of the western cliff from the High Falls to Sherman's Fall, and a little below it, the views are indescribably beautiful.

The scene wants the might and majesty of Niagara, with which, indeed, it ought never to be compared, because they are entirely dissimilar; but what it wants in size and grandeur is made up fully in picturesque beauty and in exquisite variety of view, changing at every point, and forcing the most indifferent to express their admiration. Altogether we were delighted with our excursion; and after dining at the hotel at two, we returned home by the same route, enjoyed a lovely sunset view of Utica glittering in the centre of the great plain on which it stands, and reached the city about six o'clock.

On the following morning, September 16, we left Utica by the railroad cars for Schenectady, starting at nine o'clock and arri-

ving at one, being thus four hours in performing a distance of eighty-one miles. Our route was through the beautiful valley of the Mohawk, which lost none of its charms on a second inspection, but presented a continued series of lovely landscapes, thickly-wooded hills, rich grazing plains, abundant cattle, the constantly-enlarging and ever-winding river, and flourishing villages all along the line. At Schenectady we were joined by a British officer, who had come out by the last London packet from England to New-York, and was on his way to Montreal and Quebec, this being found a nearer route than the passage to Halifax or Canada direct. We took at this place the railroad cars for Saratoga Springs, and reached there about half past five o'clock; we found comfortable quarters at our former abode, the Union Hall Hotel, with very few visitors, and here we remained, therefore, for the night.

On the next morning, as the weather was delicious, we took a walk around the village; but nothing could be more striking than the solitude and silence in which it was now unwrapped, compared with the throng and bustle in which we left it six weeks ago. Then it was estimated that there were more than 3000 visitors from all parts of the Union, and every house, public and private, was full to overflowing. Now there were not more than seventy strangers in the place, all of whom were stopping at Union Hall, as all the other large hotels had been closed during the preceding week. The spacious porticoes and verandas of the Congress Hall and United States Hotel, that a few weeks ago were filled with the choicest specimens of the beauty and fashion of the United States, were now as solitary as the ruins of Babylon or Palmyra; and as a large number of the shopkeepers, as well as those forming the establishments of the hotels, are temporary residents for the season, these, too, had taken their flight; so that, in a walk of two or three hours through and around the village, we did not see half a dozen individuals.

The few persons remaining at the hotel were real invalids, who came here, *bona fide*, for their health, some to take the waters, but others for the pure air and undisturbed tranquillity of the spot, and both of these could certainly be enjoyed in the highest degree of perfection at this moment. In the open air the sun still continued to be warm; but, at the same time, there was a freshness in the air which made exercise as delightful as it was healthy. Within doors, however, a fire was agreeable; and the majority of the company seemed to prefer forming a circle round a blazing hearth, on which large logs of wood were continually supplied, to going out; and newspapers, books, and conversation beguiled their time.

In directing my inquiries as to our route from hence to Boston, I found that the one which would afford us the best opportunity to see the greatest extent and variety of country in our way, would

be to go from hence to the commencement of Lake George, sail up that beautiful sheet of water to the ruined fort of Ticonderoga, there join the steamboat from Whitehall on the following day, and go up Lake Champlain to Burlington; from thence cross over the hills of Vermont, by Montpelier, to the White Mountains in New-Hampshire, and thence across the country to Portland in Maine, from which steamboats go daily to Boston; for this route we accordingly prepared, sending a servant with our heavy baggage round from New-York into Boston by sea.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Visit to Glen's Falls.—Caldwell.—Voyage up Lake George.—Romantic Scenery.—Beautiful Islands.—Ruins of Fort Ticonderoga.—Passage across Lake Champlain.—Shoreham.—Burlington Steamer.—Beautiful Model and high Order of this Vessel.—Scenery of Lake Champlain.—Solar Eclipse.—Arrival at Burlington, Description of the Town.—Journey to Montpelier.—Romantic Scenery of the Green Mountains.—Exquisite Beauty of the autumnal Tints.—Montpelier, the Capital of Vermont.—Statehouse.—History and Description of Vermont.—Resources and Productions.—Manufactures and Commerce of the State.—Increase of the Population.—Religious Institutions.—Journey from Montpelier to Danville.—Extensive View.—Elevation of the Mountains.—Thick Forest.—Gorgeousness of the Trees.—Danville.—Village Gossips.—Inquisitiveness of the New-England Character.—First Bed with Curtains slept in since leaving England.

ON Monday, the 17th of September, we left Saratoga Springs for Lake George in the regular stage-coach that runs between these places. The distance was only twenty-seven miles; but, though we left at one o'clock, we did not reach the end of our journey till nine, having been eight hours on the road, and with four horses, twice changed on the way, accomplishing only about three miles and a half in the hour. The road, it must be admitted, was both hilly and sandy; but it was altogether the slowest rate of travelling we had yet experienced in the country. The only place of interest that we passed in the route was the spot where we crossed the Hudson at Glen's Falls. After Niagara and the Trenton Falls, the cataract here would be regarded as insignificant, though it is not without its share of interest. The actual perpendicular fall is sixty-three feet, though there is a steep angular descent of 500 feet at least; but at this season of the year the waters were low, and, consequently, the full effect of the cataract could not be seen. The bed of the river exhibits precisely the same appearances as those already described at Trenton Falls, where successive layers of limestone rock, formed by successive deposits and subsequent pressure, make up an immense bed of strata; and these are in many places so worn by the action of the water, and broken off sharply by other causes, as to present regular series of steps.

There are two great cavernous avenues under one of these beds of rock, through which persons can easily pass, and on the walls of which are the names and initials of many former visitors; a custom far more extensively prevalent among the Americans than even among the English, who surpass all the nations of Europe in the indulgence of this propensity. I scarcely remember visiting any place at all remarkable in this country, without finding every accessible space of wall or surface covered with names, initials, and dates of visitors, and this extends even to the walls and windows of hotels and inns on the road, as if the parties thought it a wonderful achievement to have journeyed so far from home!

We found at Caldwell, the pretty village on the banks of Lake George, an extensive and commodious hotel; and there being but few visitors at this late period of the summer, we had our choice of apartments.

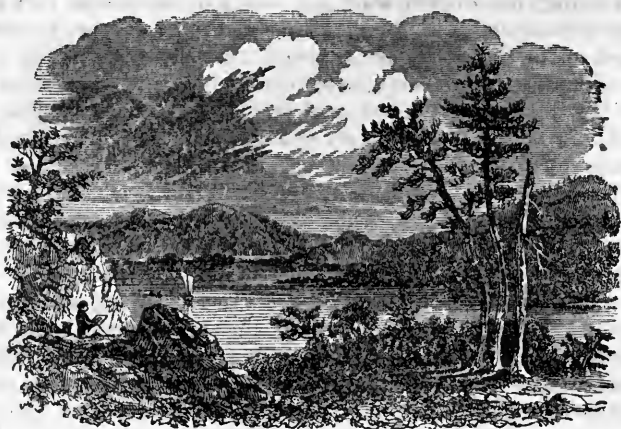
On the following morning we had to breakfast at six, and embark in the steamboat immediately after for our voyage up Lake George. The morning was beautiful; and the dense white masses of cloud that hung upon the sides of the hills, and in some places were spread out upon the surface of the lake itself, contrasted strikingly and pleasantly with the green-topped hills, clothed with verdure to their very summits, which rose on every side above them. We proceeded up the lake, with few passengers besides ourselves, at a rate of about seven or eight miles an hour, and were delighted with every part of our way.

The lake is thirty-six miles in length from north to south, but is generally very narrow, varying from one to four miles only in breadth. Its three principal features of beauty are the lofty and wooded hills which enclose it on both sides, varying from 500 to 1500 feet in elevation; its numerous islands, said to exceed 300, of every variety of size, and full of the picturesque in form and feature; and the remarkable transparency of its waters, which admits a distinct view of the sandy and gravelly bottom at a depth of five or six fathoms, and exhibits the movements of the fish with which these waters abound. The cause of this clearness of the water is no doubt the absence of any rivers or streams running into the lake; for these, by the soil they carry down in their course, always render the waters of lakes and seas more or less turbid; and to supply the annual waste by solar evaporation, there are many springs at the bottom, whose bubbling effervescence can be sometimes distinctly seen.

The wooded hills near the southern extremity of the lake are mostly untenanted; but, as you advance higher up towards the north, some of the lands near the borders of the water appear to be cleared, and farmhouses and cattle indicate the presence of agricultural settlements. On several of the islands also are dwellings and farms, though by far the greatest number are uninhabited,

and are as romantically wild and beautiful as the most ardent lover of the picturesque could desire.

About midway in our passage up the lake we passed through a strait called the Narrows, which is little more than half a mile



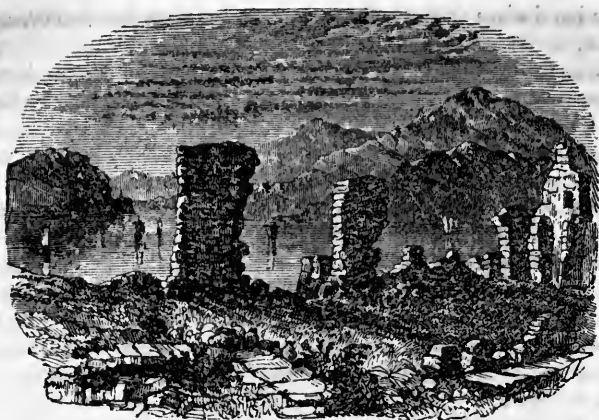
across in some parts, and varies from this to a mile for a distance of a couple of leagues. The water is said to be so deep here that no bottom has been found with a line of five hundred feet in length. From hence, too, the mountains become loftier, and one eminence, called the Black Mountain, rises to an elevation of 2200 feet, while many others approach it nearly in altitude, and by their undulating forms, and fine intervening valleys and ravines, add greatly to the richness of the scenery.

From the point of departure at Caldwell, near which are Sandy Hill, Bloody Pond, Fort George, and Fort William Henry, all the way up to the point of landing at Ticonderoga, there is a continued succession of military relics, in ruined forts and well-known battle-grounds, which deeply interest the American traveller, because they tell of the triumphs of his fathers over their enemies, and proclaim the victories of his immediate ancestors. But they cannot and do not so deeply interest the English traveller, though some of them force themselves on his attention. One of these is a place called Sabbath Day Point, where, on a projection of land on the western shore jutting out into the lake, a body of English troops landed on a Sunday during the French war, and where, in a sanguinary battle fought between them and the Indians, the English were all killed, no way of retreat being left open for them, and no quarter shown. Another spot, a few miles beyond this, is called Lord Howe's Point, it being the place where Lord Howe landed just previous to the battle of Ticonderoga, in which he received his death-wound.

Between these two military spots is a remarkable hill, on the steep side of which, fronting the lake, is a smooth declivity of rock called Rogers's Slide, from this traditional story. It is said that a Colonel Rogers, of the British army, was here pursued by the Indians during the French war, and, being driven to the very edge of the descending slide, with no possibility of escape, he boldly dashed on to the Slide, and, having snow-shoes on at the time, from the great abundance of snow everywhere on the hills, he slid from the top to the bottom, and landed in perfect safety at the mountain's foot. The Indians, regarding this as a feat which no ordinary mortal could perform, concluded that the colonel was gifted with some charmed or supernatural spirit, which protected his life and rendered him invulnerable; and therefore they thought it might bring upon them the wrath of the Great Spirit to pursue him farther.

It was about eleven o'clock when we reached the landing at the upper end of the lake, where we found carriages in waiting to carry us across the narrow neck of land, of three miles in extent, which separates Lake George, or Lake Horicon, which is its Indian name, from the larger sheet of Lake Champlain. The waters of Lake George communicate with those of Lake Champlain by a narrow strait, in exactly the same manner as the waters of Lake Erie flow into those of Lake Ontario. There is said to be a fall of 500 feet from Lake George to Lake Champlain; but, instead of the waters being precipitated over one lofty precipice, as in the strait of Niagara, they are here broken into several small falls, at intervals, along the narrow channel of three miles in length, where mills are established for sawing timber, of which we saw vast quantities in the course of our short ride.

We turned off from the ordinary road between the lakes to visit the ruins of Fort Ticonderoga, which form a prominent object in the picture from all points of view, and wear an imposing aspect in their solitude. The promontory chosen for the erection of this fort, which was originally built by the French in 1756, resembles that called West Point on the Hudson River, projecting, as it does, into the waters of Lake Champlain, and completely commanding the passage from this into Lake George, as well as all the range of the former up and down its waters. The elevation of the fort above the lake is about 200 feet; but it was commanded by two loftier hills, one called Mount Independence, on the southeast, beyond the lake, and the other called Mount Defiance, on the west, on the other side of the strait. This latter is 720 feet in height; and when the Americans occupied Fort Ticonderoga, in the Revolutionary war, General Burgoyne stationed his artillery on this elevation, and compelled the Americans to evacuate the fort, though he was himself soon after obliged to surrender, with all his army, to the American forces at Saratoga. The fort was subsequently dis-



mantled, and is now in complete ruins; the ditches, parapets, and outworks are all visible, and the walls of the magazine are still standing. There are several subterraneous vaults and passages also quite perfect; and it was through one of these that the American Colonel Ethan Allen approached the fort, when he entered and took possession of it "in the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress."

From Fort Ticonderoga we resumed our journey, and descended to the ferry across Lake Champlain, where we passed over in one of the rudest boats I had ever seen; it was little more than an oblong trough or tray, the head and stern shelving upward from the water, and the bottom perfectly flat; it had a mast in the centre, with a swinging gaff and boom for a mainsail, that traversed right round the mast, so that the head of the boat could be made the stern, and the stern the head, alternately; and with this single sail and a deep leeboard, the helmsman steering with a long oar, we soon crossed the lake and landed at the station of Shoreham. There we had to wait the arrival of the steamboat from Whitehall to Burlington, and we employed the interval in taking dinner, which was provided for us in the most uninviting form, and from which we made an unsatisfactory meal. During our stay we found some petrifications on the beach, chiefly of marine shells imbedded in limestone, as well as some enchrinites, conus, and a fruit or nut resembling the hickory nut of the present day. We learned from the innkeeper at Shoreham that there are neither springs nor rivulets of fresh water within several miles, and that all attempts to sink wells by boring for springs had been hitherto unsuccessful; in consequence of which, their only supply of water for all domestic purposes is from the lake; and as this is frozen over so as to be passed by heavy wagons during three or four months of the year, the mode of laying in their supplies is to take in a large quantity

of the ice during winter, which is kept in a closed reservoir, and this ice, melted down, is the only water they use.

About three o'clock the steamboat Burlington stopped at the landing-place, and in her we embarked for Burlington, higher up Lake Champlain, where we proposed to land. This was one of the most elegant vessels I had yet seen in America; and of steam-vessels, the most complete in all her fittings and equipments that I had ever seen in any part of the world, not excepting the Great Western, which I visited and examined at New-York.

The Burlington being built for lake navigation, and not having to encounter the heavy gales of the Atlantic, did not, of course, require the strength and solidity of the Great Western; and this enabled her constructors to give her a finer mould, and to produce elegance of form and rapidity of motion in a higher degree. Her hull is a complete model of grace and beauty; all her equipments are of the first order; and her interior accommodation, for comfort and splendour combined, surpass those of any ship or vessel I have ever seen. Her engines are of 250-horse power, and she cost about 100,000 dollars, or 20,000*l.* sterling. The captain was worthy of his ship, taking the highest degree of pride in her; and every part of her was as sweet, pure, and clean as a royal yacht.

The scenery of Lake Champlain improved as we advanced; in the part where we embarked the lake was little more than two miles across, and the land not elevated; farther up to the northward the waters expanded to a greater breadth, the hills became more lofty, and the promontories projected boldly out on either side; the wood and verdure were also abundant, and the whole, though less romantically beautiful than that of Lake George, was, nevertheless, always pleasing, and often picturesque.

During our passage up the lake we witnessed, between four and five o'clock, an annular eclipse of the sun. The sky was often overcast with clouds, but at intervals the disc of the sun was sufficiently cleared from all obstructions to enable us to perceive the eclipse in great perfection. The darkness at half past four was as great as at sunset on ordinary days, and the whole aspect of nature was of the most solemn and impressive kind; the restoration of the entire light of the sun took place before his setting, and the transition from darkness to light was striking and remarkable.

At eight o'clock we reached Burlington, where we landed and reposed for the night, the steamboat pursuing her way to the head of Lake Champlain at St. Johns, where the greater number of her passengers would disembark for Montreal; this route from New-York to Canada being now the most expeditious, most economical, and most agreeable, and being more and more frequented every year.

On the following morning, Tuesday, September 19, we took an early view of the town of Burlington, the first place we had visited

in New-England, which comprehended the six states east of the River Hudson, namely, Vermont, New-Hampshire, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; to the inhabitants of which states only the term "Yankee" is applied in America, though in England the term is erroneously used to designate Americans in general. It may be added that this term is not deemed reproachful here; persons often boast of their being Yankees, as implying a more thorough English descent, with a less admixture of foreign blood; and I remember, in Rochester, seeing a sign over a shop where all kinds of goods were sold, designating it as "The Yankee Pedlers' Store;" the enterprising and industrious New-Englanders often travelling, with a pack on their backs, from the Eastern through the Western States as pedlers, and thus laying the foundation of a competency which they subsequently improve into opulence.

Burlington is an extremely pretty town, or, as it is technically called, "incorporated village," having an incorporation of municipal authorities for all purposes of municipal government, but not yet possessing the dignity of a chartered city. It is seated on the eastern side of Lake Champlain, on a rising ground that slopes upward with a gentle ascent from the margin of the water, and thus displays all its buildings to the greatest advantage. At present there are about 500 houses of every description, with five churches, and a population of about 5000 persons. It has a courthouse and jail for county purposes, and a fine university, which stands on the most elevated part of the town, about 350 feet above the level of the lake. This university was incorporated in 1791, under the patronage of the State of Vermont, from the funds of which it was largely assisted. Its library contains at present about 2000 volumes, with an excellent apparatus for scientific experiments. About 40,000 acres of land belong to this university; the income derived from this source is at present nearly 2000 dollars, and it is increasing every year with the increased value of land. The view from the higher part of the town across the lake, and to the elevated mountains opposite, reminded me forcibly of the view across the Straits of Scio, in the Greek Archipelago, looking far above the town of Scio across the strait towards the shore of Asia Minor, the resemblance being very striking.

Having secured an extra-coach with four beautiful horses and a smart driver, we left Burlington after breakfast, about nine o'clock, for Montpelier, the capital of the State of Vermont. Our way was through the most beautiful scenery, amid the green hills which induced the original French settlers of this territory to call it the land of the Green Mountains, a name it well deserves. The continued succession of these beautiful hills, with the intervening valleys and plains by which they were divided from each other, made every mile of our ride delightful. The most romantic parts of

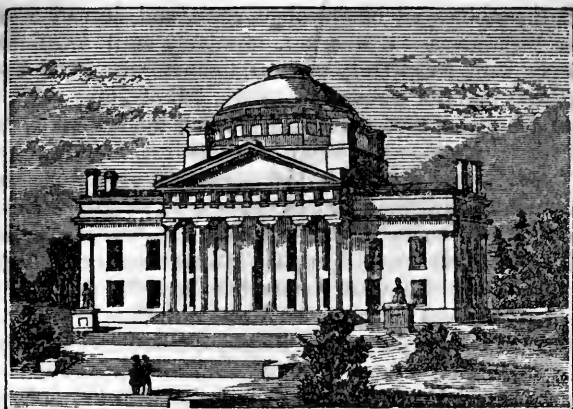
Derbyshire, and the richest parts of Devonshire, are not so lovely as the hills and valleys of this part of Vermont, in which there is every element of landscape beauty, and every combination of the picturesque.

The River Winowsky, called by the unattractive name of the Onion, which empties itself into Lake Champlain, a little to the north of Burlington, winds its meandering way along the foot of these hills, while its dark clear waters, running in a broken current over a rocky and pebbly bed, add greatly to the beauty of the scene. The hills vary from 1000 to 1500 feet in elevation generally, though some few eminences exceed 2000 feet. These are clothed with wood to the very summits, a great portion of which are evergreens. The plains are covered with the richest carpets of meadow-grass, and cattle of the finest description were grazing in luxuriant abundance. Sometimes a new feature of beauty would burst forth in a frowning, perpendicular cliff, or a projecting mass of naked rock, peering out from amid the thick foliage by which it was surrounded, and then the perpetually winding river, appearing and disappearing at every turn, would vary the scene.

The gorgeous colouring of an American autumn added a still greater charm to this enchanting picture; and we sometimes found it difficult to persuade ourselves that the deep rich browns, bright yellows, and deep blood-crimsons and scarlets of the trees we saw before us, mingled with the richest greens of every tint and hue, could be really natural or without the aid of art, it looked so like the artificial dyeing or colouring of some great manufactory, except that the colours were more varied, more brilliant, and more vivid than any that art can produce. Altogether it was one of the most beautiful tracts of country through which we had yet passed, and alone quite worth a voyage across the Atlantic to see and enjoy.

After passing through the villages of Richmond and Waterbury on our way, at each of which we changed horses, we reached Montpelier at half past one, having performed the distance of forty miles in less than five hours, being the most expeditious rate at which we had yet travelled for any distance by land. Montpelier is the legislative capital of the State of Vermont, and is one of the prettiest towns of its size that can be imagined. Its situation is peculiarly beautiful, overhung on two of its sides by lofty and verdant hills, and open on the other two to a rich valley or plain, along which the river Winowsky winds its serpentine course. The town consists chiefly of a fine broad avenue like that of Canandaigua, and, like it, lined on each side with fine rows of trees, and neat, pretty, and villa-like residences.

But the most elegant building in the town is the Statehouse, in which the Legislature of Vermont hold their sittings. This is constructed in the best taste as a work of architecture, and its classic portico and graceful dome are in the best proportions. The



material is a fine gray granite, of even texture and uniform colour, and the workmanship of the most perfect kind.

The number of inhabitants does not exceed 3000, yet there are four places of worship, all well built, commodious, and well attended. There is also a courthouse, a prison, several excellent stores for supplying the numerous farmers and graziers of the surrounding country, to the extent of 50,000 dollars annually. The hotel at which we stopped to dine was equal to any, and superior to most, of those we had seen in the State of New-York; and, altogether, we thought Montpelier one of the most delightful of all the many agreeable towns we had seen in the United States.

The State of Vermont, of which this is the capital, is of more recent settlement than either of the New-England states. When the British first made the conquest of Canada in 1760, and obtained its cession from the French in 1763, the tract of country now called Vermont, from its beautiful green mountains, was first opened to emigration. Previous to that period, its distance from the Atlantic on the one hand, and from the River St. Lawrence on the other, prevented its being much visited, either by the English from Massachusetts on the south, or the French from Canada on the north. But after that period the settlement rapidly increased, the extreme beauty of the country and fertility of the soil both attracting persons of different tastes and pursuits. During the Revolutionary war, the inhabitants of Vermont acted with great spirit and vigour against the English; and their name of the "Green Mountain Boys," by which they were then known, is still cherished by them as a title of honour.

Vermont was originally claimed by Massachusetts as a part of her territory, and subsequently by New-Hampshire and by New-York, as it borders on each of these three states; but in 1777, the year after the Declaration of Independence, the people of Vermont

declared themselves an independent state, and formed a government for themselves. It was not, however, until 1790 that the controversy with New-York was terminated. In 1791 Vermont was admitted into the Union, and on the 4th of July, 1793, its inhabitants adopted the constitution by which the state is at present governed.

The territory of Vermont is 157 miles in length from north to south, and its breadth from east to west varies from 90 miles on its northern frontier, where it adjoins Lower Canada, to 40 miles on its southern frontier, where it adjoins Massachusetts; its boundary on the west being the Lake Champlain and the State of New-York, and on the east the State of New-Hampshire. Within these boundaries the area of the state is 10,212 square miles, or 6,535,680 acres.

The ranges of hills extend generally from north to south, in two inclined planes; the rivers on the western side, which include the Winowsky, La Moile, the Otter, and the Missinqua, emptying their waters into Lake Champlain; and the rivers on the eastern side, including the White River, the West River, and the Pasumpsic, discharging their waters into the Connecticut River, by which they are carried to the sea. Lake Champlain is said to be 90 feet above the level of the Atlantic; but many of the cultivated parts of Vermont are 1000 feet above the level of Lake Champlain, and some of the Green Mountains 2000 feet at least. The soil is remarkably fertile, and grain and cattle everywhere abundant; the pasturage is deemed the finest in any part of America; and the beef, mutton, butter, cheese, and milk of Vermont are all in high estimation. Wool is also becoming an article of importance, to supply the woollen manufactures of the neighbouring state of Massachusetts.

The climate of Vermont is considered subject to the extremes of heat and cold, but the weather is thought to be more steady than on the seacoast, and the land, being a rich dark loam, receives the drainings of the hills, and rarely suffers from want of moisture. Besides grain and cattle, which may be considered the staple productions of Vermont, flax is grown in considerable quantities, and maple sugar is made largely for home consumption and for exportation; that which we saw and tasted appeared to me quite as good as the sugar of the East Indies. Iron ore, lead, and copperas are also products of Vermont, and no less than 800 tons of the latter article were made in 1826. More than 100 manufacturing companies existed in 1825; but the amount of capital applied to manufactures since that period having more than doubled, the produce is proportionally augmented. The trade is chiefly with Boston, Montreal, and New-York; and the facility recently afforded by railroads, canals, and steamboats, for intercourse with these places, has brought them all within easy reach for traffic.

The population of Vermont was in 1790 only 85,539; in 1800 it was 154,465; and in 1830 it was 280,657. It has 15 banks, the aggregate capital of which exceeds 1,000,000 dollars; and 100,000 dollars is raised annually for the support of common schools, in addition to 25,000 dollars annually from a literary fund to assist other schools, independently of the support of the College of Middleburg and the University at Burlington, both liberally assisted by the state. The religious establishments are also amply supported. The Congregationalists, or, as we more frequently call them, the Independents, have 232 churches, and above 20,000 communicants; the Baptists, 119 churches, and above 10,000 communicants; the Methodists, nearly an equal number; and, besides these, there are a few Episcopalians, Unitarians, and Universalists.

After dining agreeably at an excellent hotel, we took a fresh extra-coach for Danville, distant 30 miles, where we intended to sleep. The road was still interesting, though not so richly and romantically beautiful as in the former part of the day. We had the same variety of hill and valley, but the woods were not so luxuriant nor the meadows so verdant. The field-fence of Vermont consists of the great roots and lower part of the trunks of trees, extracted from the ground after felling, and then raised upon their sides, and placed along in a continuous row. It seemed to us more picturesque than the Virginia fence, which is a zigzag of horizontal stakes; or than another sort sometimes in use here, like the *chevaux-de-frize* of military lines. Geese were abundant, grazing on the meadows or on the grassplots on each side of the road; and turkeys were fully as numerous: whole fields of pumpkins were seen well stocked, and elderberries were also abundant, though Vermont is not a good fruit-country, nor does it produce so much grain as New-Hampshire, cattle being its principal wealth.

We noticed here that the signs of the inns on the road were hung on hinges so as to swing, after the English fashion, while in the State of New-York they were fixed as on a target. In both, however, it is the custom to have ample verandas or piazzas running round the house, and the lower space in front is generally crowded with persons seated on chairs and smoking cigars, which gives an air of dissipation to the scene. We observed, also, that to many of the isolated dwelling-houses in the country there were private burial-grounds attached, in which one or two members of the family had been interred; and the place of their repose was marked by a neat monument within an enclosure, just as if it had been included within consecrated ground. Everywhere, however, cleanliness and neatness prevailed, and gave us a highly favourable impression of the New-England character for order and propriety.

In the course of our first stage from Montpelier we came to one of the wooden bridges with which the country abounds, now in the

act of being repaired, and apparently impassable, as the flooring or platform of the bridge, consisting of loose planks, had all been removed. But the driver, with good-humour and alacrity, set to work himself to place the planks across again in their proper places; and, in the course of half an hour, the bridge was sufficiently restored for us to pass in safety. This driver, like all we had yet seen in America, was remarkably kind to his horses; and though he drove faster and steadier than any who had yet driven us, he never used his whip to touch the horses, but merely smacked it in the air, and talked to the animals as though he believed they understood every word he said. I may add, that while the American drivers appear to be uniformly kind to their cattle, the horses themselves are more docile and tractable than with us; and up to the present time, at least, we have met with no one instance of a vicious or refractory horse in any of the teams with which we have travelled.

Though the road was less beautiful than in the morning, it still continued to be interesting, and even picturesque. Immense boulders of granite were strewn on the sides of some of the hills; the trees became more and more vividly coloured by every tint of crimson, scarlet, brown, and yellow, mingled with the deep evergreens by which they were surrounded; and when we attained the summit of an ascending slope, up which the road winds for three miles, we enjoyed a most extensive and magnificent view of the country to the west of us, in the direction from whence we had come; all the Green Mountains being visible from this point, the highest eminence among them, called "The Camel's Hump," rising to an elevation of 2000 feet.

The latter part of our journey was through a thick wood, in which the splendid varieties of colours in the foliage were such as really to seem extravagant and unnatural. Of this I am certain, that, before having seen these woods, had any landscape or picture, purporting to be a faithful representation of an American autumn, been so gorgeously coloured as these woods really were, I should have thought it an exaggeration; but the scene before us was so brilliantly beautiful that no painter could exaggerate it, in brightness and variety of colouring at least.

We reached Danville at seven o'clock, just as the shades of night were closing in, and were glad to find comfortable quarters there. The inn at which we stopped, though the best in the place, was a very humble one compared with those at which we had recently halted; but it was clean in every part, while some of the larger ones are deficient in this requisite. The quidnuncs of the village soon surrounded the door, and a hundred questions were asked, both of us and the driver, as to our route, destination, &c. It was, indeed, the most truly village-scene we had for a long time witnessed, and reminded us of Franklin's account of the extreme inquisi-

tiveness of the New-Englanders in his day; a characteristic which remains in full force at Danville, however much it may have abated in larger places.

We retired early to rest; and here, in this obscure quarter, slept in the first curtained bed in which we had ever reposed since our leaving England a year ago. We had seen four-post beds with curtains in private houses, but in no hotel or boarding-house in any of the greatest cities had we ever met with a bed, not even in the depth of winter, hung with curtains as in England, till this at Danville.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Description of the White Mountains.—Names and Elevations of the principal Peaks.—Journey from the Mountain Pass to Conway.—Stage-drivers and Passengers from Conway to Centre Harbour.—Winnipiseogee, or the beautiful Lake Meredith.—River Merrimac.—Shaker Village.—Concord, the Capital of New-Hampshire.—Excessive use of Tobacco.—Danville to Littleton.—Road through the Forest.—Autumnal Foliage.—White Mountain House.—Entry into the "Notch" or Pass through the Mountains.—Romantic Wildness of the Scenery.—Accumulation of Granite Rocks.—Lightning and Storms.—Descent of Slides or Avalanches from the Mountains.—Tragical Instance.—Fate of the Willey Family.—Concord and its public Buildings.—Suitors attending the Court.—Prolixity of legal Proceedings.—State of New-Hampshire.—History of the early Settlement.—Statistics of its Population, Manufactures, and Trade.—Institutions for Education.—Colleges of Dartmouth and Exeter.—Religious Establishments and Sects in New-Hampshire.—Journey from Concord to Lowell and Boston.

On the morning of September 20th we took an extra-coach for Littleton, a distance of 25 miles. We left Danville at eight o'clock, at which hour the surface of all the valleys was covered with a dense white fog, giving them the appearance of small lakes; but this gradually disappeared as the sun advanced towards the meridian. The road was much more hilly than any previous part of our way; and, though the driver did his best, we did not reach our destination till one o'clock, making our speed about five miles an hour with four horses.

After various attempts on the part of the innkeeper at Littleton to detain us to dinner, and delaying the supply of fresh horses for that purpose, we pushed forward so as to get through the White Mountains before night; and, having a more level road, we made better progress. After a ride of about ten miles we entered a dense forest, which continued to border the road for nearly all the remainder of the way, and seemed perfectly impervious on either side. Here and there a few patches had been cleared, the stumps of the felled trees still remaining in the ground, and in some instances the fires still remaining by which the trunks had been consumed; red squirrels were seen in abundance, playing their gambols from tree to

tree; and the varied tints of their foliage, brighter and more beautiful than ever, seemed to look more glowing amid the deep shadows of the forest than they had done in the midday sun.

There were parts of this drive that were really enchanting; and it was rather like passing through the well-planted and carefully-adorned avenue of approach to some splendid chateau, where flowers of every hue were mingled with the trees enclosing it, than a drive through a dense natural forest, with no other variations of form and colour than those produced by the wild growth of the native woods, and the various states of vegetable decay, which produced the glowing and brilliant colours all around us. The effect of all this beauty was greatly heightened by the occasional glimpses which we were enabled to catch of the lofty summits of the White Mountains, peering above the trees, and advancing or receding from us, as our course wound through the forest in the bends and turns of the road.

It was about four o'clock when we reached the White Mountain House, a distance of fifteen miles in two hours, and finding here a delightful hotel, clean, spacious, and well-provided, we halted to dine, and were never more pleased with everything around us than here. The house is often full of visitors in the high summer season; but at present there were few or none, the season for visiting the White Mountains being near its close. We were furnished, however, with all we could desire, served in the best possible manner, and at a very moderate expense. This was the first instance in which we had yet seen a servant take a seat in the room while waiting; but it being a young girl of fifteen or sixteen, and every part of her demeanour being modest and respectful, it did not strike us with so much "horror" as it seems to have done some English travellers; for all that we required of her was promptly and cheerfully performed, and the intervals in which her services were not wanted were those alone in which she sat.

We heard here that on the preceding day a party had attempted the ascent of Mount Washington, but the lateness of the season obliged them to give it up. Long before they reached the summit they encountered ice three inches thick, and many were so benumbed as to be unable to proceed farther. A young black bear had been caught on the mountain, and was now at the White Mountain House, chained. It was a fine animal, and appeared to bear its confinement with great impatience, and to try every method within its power to regain its liberty, by gnawing at its chain, and trying every turn in hope of escape.

As we had to reach Conway this evening to enable us to be in Boston on Saturday, it was necessary to make a new contract for an extra-coach; and the parties here furnishing these conveyances, seeing our need, took advantage of it accordingly, and demanded twenty-five dollars for a journey of thirty miles; a dearer rate than

we had ever before paid, but certainly not more than under similar circumstances would have been demanded in England.

We left the White Mountain House at five, and proceeding by a good road, with four fine horses and an excellent driver, we reached the entrance to what is called the Notch of the White Mountains, a distance of four miles and a half, in little more than half an hour. There is an inn here also, called the Notch House, but very inferior in all its external appearances to the one below. In our way we saw some fine pheasants and a great number of wood-pigeon, both of brilliant and beautiful plumage; but the general scarcity of birds, and the entire absence of singing-birds especially, had been remarked by us, not only in this recent journey through Vermont and New-Hampshire, but in every part of America that we had yet visited, whether in the State of New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, or Virginia, in which we were during the months of February, March, April, and May; or along the banks of the Hudson, across the State of New-York to the Lakes and Niagara, or up Lake George and Lake Champlain, and through the Green Mountains of Vermont, amid which we passed the months of June, July, August, and September. In this respect the country appeared to us less animated and less cheerful than "merry England," where the linnet and the lark, the thrush and the nightingale, make the woods ring with their delicious melody.

It was about six o'clock when we entered the narrow gorge or pass of the White Mountains, and about seven when we made our exit into the open country on the other side, the whole distance through the pass being about seven miles. The scenery of this ravine is undoubtedly grand, and in some places approaching the awful and sublime. The effect was greatly heightened at this hour of the day, when the broad shadows of the mountains gave a gloom to the depths below, and the forest portions through which we passed—for thick woods exist in the very heart of the ravine—were buried in absolute darkness, while the perpendicular cliffs, steep slides, and towering summits of the White Mountains above were still bathed in all the fulness of daylight, the loftiest peaks of the eastern hills being just tinged with the horizontal beams of the setting sun.

What added greatly to the grandeur of the scenery was the desolation and wreck of nature that seemed to reign all around. Along the bottom of the ravine ran the River Saco, winding its course as the projecting and receding points of the foot of the hills directed; and its bed was so thronged with large masses of fallen rock that its current was interrupted at every step, so that the whole of its waters were in a constant state of roughness and agitation, amounting sometimes to a boiling foam. The slopes of the mountains on either side are also covered with huge masses of rock, and smaller fragments surrounding them, which from time to

time find their way to the valley below, and choke up the ravine, so that the whole scene is one of Nature in process of disintegration or decay.

As the mountains are of primitive granite, with all the usual solidity of this material in the mass, it has seemed difficult to account for this immense quantity of *debris*, or broken rock and rubbish, with which the greater part of the whole is covered: more especially as not only the sides, but the tops of the mountains, are coated with these innumerable fragments of broken stone. The most probable solution I had heard of this was that which supposed the hard and compact surface of the primitive mountains to be severed by the operation of lightning, which is very frequent in the summer; and then the snows, reposing on these cracked and shivered masses during all the winter, would of course insinuate moisture into the very depths of the chasms. The melting of the snows in the spring and summer would greatly assist the progress of decomposition and disintegration in these broken masses; and every loud clap of thunder, by its vibration through the hills, and every storm of wind, would assist to put these disjointed fragments in motion, till, step by step, they would be perpetually driven lower and lower down the mountain-side, covering those already below them, and making way for other fragments above to roll down in time, and cover them also.

By such an annual process as this, repeated through a long series of centuries—and this process must have been going on ever since the period when these mountains were first upheaved above the general surface of the surrounding valleys and plains—one can well understand how what was originally a primitive mountain of solid granite rock, should seem at present, both on its summits and down its sides, rather a collection of larger and smaller fragments heaped up on each other to their present height, making, as it were, a huge mountain of loose stones.

It sometimes happens that, besides the rolling down of single masses or blocks, bringing a large quantity of smaller fragments in their train—which takes place at all seasons and at all hours throughout the year—there are periods at longer intervals, when immense accumulations of these masses descend in what is sometimes called a slide, and sometimes an avalanche, to the valley below, carrying devastation and dismay in their path. A comparatively recent instance of this has left so deep an impression on all the surrounding country, that you cannot speak to any one of the White Mountains, whether on the spot or in the neighbourhood, without hearing the details of this instance repeated.

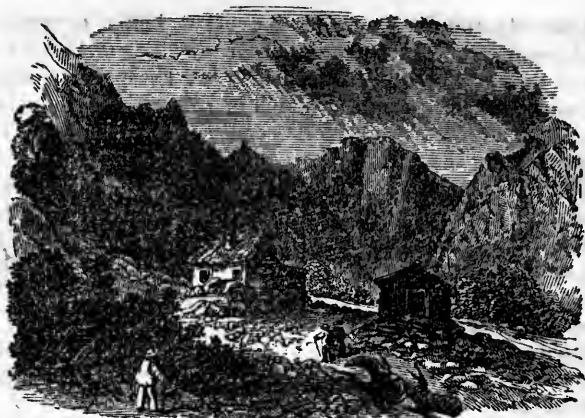
The history of it was briefly this. An humble family named Willey had taken up their abode on the slope of the western hills, near the ravine, and in so steep and so scantily wooded a part of it, that the very choice of such a spot indicates either

great poverty and incapacity to procure a better, or great want of judgment in the selection. Their dwelling was very humble, and their possessions confined to a few sheep and horses, and the produce of a neighbouring patch of ground. In the month of June, 1826, a large avalanche descended near their house, though without injuring them; but, instead of removing from their dwelling altogether at that time, which would have been the most prudent course had they possessed the means, they erected a temporary shed and dwelling not far from their own, as a place of shelter in case of any similar occurrence, wholly overlooking the fact that the new temporary dwelling was just as likely to be overwhelmed as the older and more permanent one, and that these avalanches descend with so much rapidity that there is no time between the first hearing of their movement and their actual descent to escape far from their direction.

About two months after this, in August, 1826, and when the family were all in bed, a vast avalanche, extending, it is said, over a breadth of two miles, descended from the brow of the mountain towards the ravine below, carrying everything before it; but, when it arrived within a few feet of their house, it divided into two portions, and encompassed the house at a distance of six feet on each side without touching it. After carrying away the stable and horses, and sweeping off the temporary shed erected near for shelter also, it reunited again a little beyond the house, leaving the dwelling in an insulated spot, as if preserved by some sacred hand or for some sacred purpose, untouched and unharmed. But the torrent of wind and rain bore along with it, down the steep sides of the mountain, trees, rock, earth, and everything it met with in its way, completely overflowing every part of the surrounding surface, and choking up for a while even the passage of the river below.

Had the family remained in their own humble dwelling they would have been perfectly safe, as the sheep, grazing on a small plot of grass in front of the house, were preserved alive and unhurt; but, in the paroxysm of their fear, they had sought refuge by flight, and were overwhelmed with the torrent and destroyed. When the house was examined on the cessation of the storm, the beds were found in disorder, as if quitted by persons in great alarm; and, by a subsequent search in the ravine, the bodies of the victims, nine in number, were found, mangled and overwhelmed with the driftwood and rubbish brought down by the stream.

This tragedy of real life is likely to be remembered as long as the hill on which it happened shall endure; but here upon the spot, where one meets individuals who personally knew the sufferers, and who were engaged in the search after their bodies, the impression is almost as strong as if the event had happened only yesterday instead of ten years ago. The deep and extensive in-



terest felt in the fate of this unfortunate family, compared with the indifference manifested by the same parties to the death of much greater numbers, and in more cruel and painful methods, if they occur at a distance, is a striking proof of the narrow range or limited circle of human sympathy. For instance, in Hindustan, the self-immolation of widows burning on the funeral piles of their husbands; the devotion of children as human sacrifices, and their destruction by infanticide in various shapes; the systematic murder of the Thugs on the Continent of India, and the bloody assassinations of the Malays among the islands of the Indian Seas; the immense destruction of human life by wars, whether at Trafalgar and Waterloo, among the so-called heroes of Europe, or in the swamps of Louisiana and Florida, and on the plains of Texas, between the savage and civilized inhabitants of America; all these, as well as the miseries inflicted on men by ignorance, intemperance, and slavery, seem as nothing—in the degree of interest they excite or the degree of sympathy they enlist—to the fate of a single family, when it happens in any unusual manner, and becomes a part and parcel of the history of some romantic locality.

Thus it is, no doubt, that individual pictures of suffering affect more deeply than the miseries of masses; though true wisdom should surely teach us that our sympathies and our efforts would be more wisely, because more usefully, directed in sorrowing for, and endeavouring to save, the many, rather than mourning over the sufferings of the few.

The White Mountains consist of several separate elevations, of which the principal have received the names of presidents of the United States. Mount Washington, for instance, is the name given to the loftiest of these eminences; and its height above the level of the sea is thought to exceed 6000 feet, its elevation above the River Connecticut being 5350 feet. The peaks of Jefferson, Adams,

Madison, Monroe, and Quincy vary from 4500 to 5500 feet in height above the sea. There are others at greater and lesser distances belonging to this chain, such as the Lafayette, the Moosehillock, and the Grand Minadnoc, the two former each about 20 miles distant in a northeast and southwest direction, and the latter 120 miles off, to the southwest also. These are all in view from the summit of Mount Washington, as well as the sea, near Portland, in Maine, at a distance of 65 miles southeast; the Kahtadin Mountains, near the sources of the Penobscot River, in the northeast; and the Green Mountains of Vermont, near to Lake Champlain, on the west; with the various lakes, rivers, and valleys spread around in profusion towards every point of the compass.

The White Mountains are so called, no doubt, from the generally white and bare summits of the principal elevations, being composed of gray granite, and perfectly denuded of vegetation. Near their bases they are well clothed with forest-trees; higher up the wood becomes stunted and dwarfish, for want of heat and moisture; and, above all, the white or gray summits rise in beds of naked and broken stone, the vegetation ceasing at the elevation of about 4000 feet. The views are wild and savage rather than romantic or beautiful, and the pictures they present are such as *Salvator Rosa*, rather than *Claude Lorrain*, would delight to paint.

After emerging from the deep forest and the dark ravine through which we had come in traversing this mountain-pass—most inappropriately, as it seems to me, called “The Notch,” as conveying the idea of something cut or indented by art, whereas here the grandeur of nature alone is seen—we came into a rocky tract, over which, however, the road was better than we had expected; and being now completely enveloped in darkness, we trusted to the strength of our horses and skill of our driver for the rest of the way, and, proceeding steadily, we arrived safe at Conway at about eleven at night. The inn appeared to be the worst we had yet met with; but there was no proceeding farther without help; and, as the inmates and servants had all retired to bed, we had to rouse them up, which we found to be an affair of no small difficulty, occupying fully half an hour of time. When roused, however, we appeared to have gained but little, for the inside of the inn was worse than its exterior; and, though there was no incivility, but rather an evident disposition on the part of the attendants to do their best, yet that best was so very bad, that we deeply regretted we could not pass the night in our carriage by proceeding on our way; but, as fresh horses could not be had, this was impossible. We made the best of our disagreeable position by lighting a fire in the general sitting-room, where Mrs. Buckingham sat up in an easy chair, while myself and my son threw ourselves on the only bed we could procure.

We slept but little, though fatigued, and were all glad when the

day broke. The remainder of our way was to be performed by the regular stage-coach in two days' journey, one from hence to Concord, and one from Concord to Boston, the former seventy-two miles, and the latter seventy-three miles. The coach was to leave at half past six, so we had to take our breakfast at six o'clock. The morning was cold and foggy; the house was filled with tobacco-smoke, as everybody besides ourselves and a few females in the house had cigars in their mouths—the landlord, waiter, ostler, groom, driver, porter, and stable-boy; in short, the fog within doors was as dense as that without, and far more disagreeable. The breakfast was of the most uninviting description: hashed meats and hot boiled potatoes were set on, with coffee and thin slices of new hot bread. The driver of the stage was one of the breakfast-party, and appeared to be the principal personage at the table; it being the custom, we were told, throughout New-England for the drivers to take their meals with the passengers. I see no rational objection to this, if they are clean and well-behaved; and, as far as we had observed of the drivers on this road, they were often superior in appearance and manners to many of their passengers, and were frequently the proprietors of the coaches they drove.

A great part of our way after leaving Conway was stony, flat, and uninteresting, though near Conway itself are several pretty views; we saw, however, few scenes or objects to interest us much till we arrived at a place called Centre Harbour, which we reached about noon, and where we halted to dine. This town, which is very small, is seated on the edge or border of the Lake Winnepesaukee, or the "Beautiful Lake," which this name implies in the Indian language, and well indeed does it deserve the epithet. It is 23 miles in length, from six to 14 in breadth, extremely irregular in its shape, and filled with a number of exquisitely beautiful islands. Its shores are less elevated than those of Lake George, and therefore they do not possess the boldness which characterizes the borders of that fine piece of water; but, on the other hand, these surrounding lands are more fertile, exhibit a greater variety of foliage, and the shores and islands are far more varied, so that there is more of richness and softness about the "Beautiful Lake" than there is about Lake George. We saw some rude log-huts here, which indicated the presence of new settlers in the valleys.

At one o'clock we left Centre Harbour in the stage-coach, and pursued our way over a stony and uninteresting road, with few villages or people to be seen. Some orchards now appeared in different directions, and they were the more remarkable, as we had seen none in Vermont or New-Hampshire near the line of our road. We reached Meredith at half past two; this is a large and apparently flourishing town, with a number of water-mills for sawing timber into planks standing on the banks of the River Merrimac.

From hence onward the country began to wear a more fertile



and more populous aspect, and at five o'clock we passed through a settlement of the Shakers, bearing no other name than that of "The Shaker Village." It appeared to us to be larger than the settlement at Niskyuna, which we had visited near Albany; like it, this was a perfect model of neatness, order, and propriety, and every external symptom indicated a very high degree of prosperity.

The fields belonging to the settlement were all enclosed with well-built stone walls or hedges; the grounds were entirely free of weeds and stones, and the grass was of the richest verdure. The cattle out at pasture were large and in excellent condition. Their houses were neat, uniform, and cleaner than any dwellings with which they could be compared or contrasted; and their windows were so clear that they must have been regularly cleaned every morning. Everything by which a judgment could be formed showed, as clearly as such things can do, that, as far as accumulation and improvement of property is concerned, nothing can be more favourable to this than the principle of co-operation, as opposed to individual efforts in competition. Indeed, if it were not for the religious peculiarities that have been so often mixed up with experiments in forming co-operation—some having too much of religious observances, and some not having enough—I cannot but believe that the simple principle of co-operation would have made greater progress among mankind; and that, when divested of this hinderance, it will some day or other make a great change in the social arrangements of mankind.

The approach to Concord is very pretty. It was nearly seven o'clock when we reached it; and then, owing to the fulness of the town, from the court being in session, and from many strangers having been attracted to the place to see the ascent of a balloon, we found it very difficult to get quarters at the principal inn. On alighting at the door, all the portico and veranda was full; the

barroom, the stage-coach office, and every other place equally so; and, as everybody seemed to have a cigar in his mouth, the clouds of smoke were intolerable. I thought I had seen more tobacco-smokers in the inns of Conway and Concord than in any ten of the hotels of New-York; indeed, the remotest parts of the house were fumigated with it, so that the very bedclothes were saturated with smoke.

This inordinate use of tobacco, in chewing and smoking, is one of the greatest nuisances that one meets with in travelling through America; and it is really surprising, in a country where the outward respect shown to women is so remarkable, and where all ladies express their dislike of both these practices among the men, that they should nevertheless continue. Yet so it is; and every day in the year, ladies, who are particular about the cleanliness of their houses, are annoyed by seeing their carpets and mats defiled by the chewer of tobacco; while others, who are made sick with the smell, are annoyed by the suffocating fumes of the smokers. The selfishness which both these practices engender makes those who indulge them wholly indifferent to any one's pleasures but their own; and, notwithstanding the repeated printed prohibitions hung up over ladies' cabins in steamboats, ladies' drawing-rooms in hotels, and in railroad cars and other places, the practice is still continued, if not in the immediate locality, at least so near it as to be equally offensive.

We passed a disagreeable night at Concord, from the crowded state of the hotel and the fumes of the tobacco, which filled every part of the house, so that we were up very early. This afforded us an opportunity to make an excursion through the town, which, being the capital of New-Hampshire, was thought worthy of some examination. The town is advantageously and agreeably situated on the western bank of the Merrimac River, which is here of a good size, and which proceeds from hence down to the sea at Newburyport, where it is navigable for ships of considerable burden. The town has about 500 dwellings and nearly 5000 inhabitants. The two principal streets are of ample breadth, 120 feet at least; and many of the dwellings have pretty little garden-plats before their doors, while trees are numerous, giving a fine rural aspect to the whole.

Among the public buildings, the Statehouse, which fronts the principal street, is the most conspicuous. It is built of granite, with a frontage of 100 feet, and is three stories in elevation. It contains a large hall on the first floor, and the chambers of the senators and representatives on the second. The state-prison is also a substantial edifice, and there are the full proportion of churches in the town. The courthouse was thronged with clients and their professional advisers, as the court was now in session; for here, as in England, the disposition of men to go to law with

each other, even at the risk of spending five times the original sum in dispute, is very strong; a disposition which the legal profession do not take much pains to discourage, as this would be laying the axe to the root of their own gains, a degree of virtue which individuals may sometimes exercise, but which is rarely practised by large bodies of men.

There is the same tendency in both countries, too, to lengthen out, rather than to abridge, the duration of a cause, because every step brings fees in its train; but as the judges are more indulgent here than in England towards "lengthy" speakers, the court is sometimes occupied for an entire day by some one counsel, and that, too, on a very trivial subject, without his being checked. The consequence is, that business accumulates, and arrears remain at the end of every session, to be put off till the next, and then again, for some new reason, still farther protracted or deferred; so that the time consumed in conducting a suit to an issue, the quantity of documents written and the mass of verbiage wasted, on points which any half dozen men of ordinary capacity and disinterested judgment would settle in a few hours, is a sad tax on the patience, industry, time, and money of the unhappy litigants. In this manner many thousands of persons in England and America acquire fortunes by settling the disputes of others, without contributing in the slightest degree to increase the general wealth of the country.

The speeches of counsel, however, are much longer in America than in England, and the gentlemen of the bar only follow the example of the members of Congress in this respect. The national propensity to prolixity might, no doubt, be greatly checked, if not entirely cured, by the judicious exercise of restraining authority on the part of the bench; but, as such authority is never exercised, the lawyers of America literally riot in words; and when a case is opened or a speech begun, no one ever pretends to say when it is likely to be finished. Mr. John Quincy Adams, in the last Congress, occupied the morning hour allotted every day to petitions by a speech on the affairs of Texas, for several weeks in succession, talking on every day during that hour to the end of the session, so that no one could answer him till the following session, before which a new Congress would be elected; and many of the lawyers in the courts seem to be imbued with the same passion for loquacity. The most intelligent of the Americans are fully sensible of this defect; and in the beautiful address of Mr. Nicholas Biddle to the Alumni of Princeton College in New-Jersey, it is thus adverted to and thus pointedly reproved:

"Our institutions require and create a multitude of public speakers and writers; but, without culture, their very numbers impede their excellence, as the wild richness of the soil throws out an unweeded and rank luxuriance. Accordingly, in all that we say or write about public affairs, a crude abundance is the disease of our American style. On the

commonest topic of business, a speech swells into a declamation; an official statement grows to a dissertation. A discourse about anything must contain everything. We will take nothing for granted. We must commence at the very commencement. An ejection for ten acres reproduces the whole discovery of America; a discussion about a tariff or a turnpike summons from their remotest caves the adverse blasts of windy rhetoric; and on those great Sorbonian hogs, known in political geography as constitutional questions, our ambitious fluency often begins with the general deluge, and ends with its own. It is thus that even the good sense and reason of some become wearisome, while the undisciplined fancy of others wanders into all the extravagances and the gaudy phraseology which distinguish our Western Orientalism. The result is, that our public affairs are in danger of becoming wholly unintelligible; concealed rather than explained, as they often are, in long harangues, which few who can escape will hear, and in massive documents, which all who see will shun. For this idle waste of words—at once a political evil and a social wrong—the only remedy is study. The last degree of refinement is simplicity; the highest eloquence is the plainest; the most effective style is the pure, severe, and vigorous manner, of which the great masters are the best teachers."

New-Hampshire, of which Concord is the legislative capital, though Portsmouth is a much larger and more populous town, is about the same size in area as Vermont, being 160 miles in length from north to south, 70 miles in mean breadth from east to west, and containing 8500 square miles, or 5,440,000 acres. The greater portion of this area is in the interior, as the seacoast measures only 18 miles in length. It is bounded on the north by Lower Canada, which it touches on the disputed boundary-line between the British and the United States' possessions; on the south by Massachusetts, on the west by Vermont, on the east by Maine, and on the southeast by the Atlantic. The country near the seacoast is generally level, but in the interior the surface is greatly diversified with hills and mountains, and it is said that from this circumstance the vicissitudes and extremes of temperature are greater in New-Hampshire than in any other of the states of the Union. The soil is as varied as the temperature, being rich and fertile near the banks of the rivers, but less productive remote from them; pasture absorbs a larger portion than tillage, and grain of various kinds is produced in the state; yet cattle are more abundant, and the orchards are also highly productive, though few other kinds of fruit are grown here except apples.

Settlers from England visited New-Hampshire as early as 1622, under a grant from the Plymouth Company, and their first positions were taken up at the Piscataqua River, and at Cocheco, which is now Dover. In 1631, Portsmouth, the chief seaport of New-Hampshire, was settled, and in 1638 the town of Exeter was founded. From 1641 to 1679 New-Hampshire existed, in coalition with Massachusetts, as a colony of Great Britain; but after that it separated itself, and so continued till the American Revolution, when, in 1776, New-Hampshire was the first to form a constitution of its own,

and since then it has existed as an independent state. As most of the states of the Union have some distinctive appellation, as "the Empire State," for New-York; "the Key-stone State," for Pennsylvania; and "the Old Dominion," for Virginia, so New-Hampshire is called "the Granite State," from the large quantities of granite produced by its quarries, and sent to all parts of the country for building. It is called also the Switzerland of America, from its beautifully picturesque scenery in its mountains, rivers, cataracts, and lakes.

The population of New-Hampshire was estimated in 1701 at 10,000, and even in 1730 it was but 12,000, having increased only 2000 during 29 years; nor did it reach higher than 80,000 in 1775, the last year of its being a colony of the British. From the date of its independence, 1776, it went on, like all the other free states, to increase rapidly in population, and the decennial enumerations after this period give the following numbers:

In 1790	141,885	In 1820	244,161
1800	183,858	1830	269,328
1810	214,460	1838	300,000

During the last few years, the attention of the people has been fixed on manufactures, and there already exist upward of 50 cotton and woollen manufactories, many of them on a large scale; there are also many paper-mills, glass-houses, and establishments for iron works, particularly in Franconia, near the White Mountains. The shipping of the state is estimated at about 20,000 tons. There are many canals existing, and others in process of excavation, as well as railroads, and all the elements of trade and commerce abound.

The institutions for education include an excellent college at Hanover, called "Dartmouth College," from the Earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its earliest patrons, the college being founded in 1769. It has 250 students, a library of 7000 volumes, an anatomical museum, and an annual income of about 4000 dollars. An institution exists at Exeter also, called "Phillips's Exeter Academy," which was founded by the Hon. John Phillips, LL.D. in 1781. It has a fund of 81,000 dollars, and this is partly appropriated to the support of indigent students, who have the disposition and capacity for study, without the means.

The religious establishments of New-Hampshire are ample, when compared with its population. The Congregationalists or Independents are the most numerous; these have 180 churches and 164 ministers, with about 15,000 communicants. The Baptists have 80 churches; the Methodists, Episcopal and others, 42; Presbyterians, 15; Universalists, 12; Quakers, 12; Unitarians, 10; Episcopalians, 8, and Catholics, 2. There are also two societies of Shakers, and one of Sandemanians. Such is the vigour of the voluntary system, that the ministers of all these sects—excepting only the Quakers and Shakers, who both repudiate the principle of pay-

ing "hirelings," as they call them, for preaching the Gospel—are liberally sustained by their respective congregations. Their churches are well-built, without assistance from the state, and kept in excellent repair, without forcible levies of tithes or church-rates; and the peace and harmony between them all is rarely or ever disturbed. As far, therefore, as outward indications can be taken as a safe guide, there seems every reason to believe that religion is very generally respected, and its influence felt as extensively in this state as in any others that we had yet travelled through.

On Saturday, the 22d of September, we left Concord for Boston, coming through Amoskeag, Merrimac, and Nashua, all respectable and thriving towns, to Lowell, which we reached about two o'clock; and finding there a train of cars just ready to start for Boston, a distance of 25 miles, we took our seats and proceeded on, leaving Lowell for a future visit, as it is deemed the Manchester of America, from its extensive manufactories, and is worthy of a careful examination.

The cars, which were both handsome and commodious, were well filled, the train carrying probably 200 passengers at once; and we performed the distance smoothly and pleasantly in about an hour and a half. The first sight of Boston was very picturesque and promising, with its finely-elevated Statehouse crowning the general eminence, and surrounded by the dwellings of the city; its long bridges, and numerous vessels of all classes and sizes either moored at its wharfs or plying on its waters. Arriving at the depôt, we found an omnibus ready to convey us to the hotel; and everything connected with the transfer of the baggage being conducted with regularity and speed, we were soon on our way to the Tremont House, where we found excellent quarters prepared for our occupation.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Stay at Boston.—Delivery of Lectures there.—Resolutions presented at their Close.—Mr. George Combe's Lectures on Phrenology.—Mr. Cushing's Lecture on the Influence of Women.—Governor Everett's Lecture on the Voyages of the Northmen.—Afternoon Lectures and Madame Caradori's Concerts.—Public Meetings in behalf of the "Sailor's Home."—Institutions visited in Boston.—Public Characters.—Environs.—Salem and Marblehead.—Military Levee.

WE remained in Boston for a period of nine weeks, during the most agreeable part of the year, after the summer heats had subsided, and before the extreme cold of the winter had set in—from the 22d of September to the 26th of November. We saw the city and its environs, therefore, in the most favourable season of au-

turn, while the foliage was yet on the trees, and richly and beautifully coloured, and while the warm sun and bright skies of this delightful period gave us all the glow of summer and the bracing freshness of winter combined. It was the season, too, at which most of the opulent families, who pass their summers at their country residences or in travelling, return to town for their winter abode, and when the city is consequently the most crowded.

During our protracted stay in Boston I was engaged in the delivery of my lectures on Egypt and Palestine before the members of the Mercantile Library Association, at whose invitation I had come on to Boston for this purpose. The place chosen for their delivery was the Odeon, formerly a theatre for dramatic performances, then converted into a concert-room, and now used for music and for public lectures. It still retains its usual subdivisions into boxes, pit, and gallery, but is so divested of all theatrical ornaments, and so tastefully and chastefully fitted up, as to combine elegance and comfort in a very high degree, and is capable of seating 1200 auditors comfortably. The lectures were delivered twice in the week, at half past seven in the evening, and were very fully attended by audiences that were said to contain the most distinguished families of Boston, nearly all the clergy, and literary and scientific men, and the most critical and accomplished among the ladies. They appeared to give more than usual satisfaction to those who attended; and the following resolutions, which were passed at their close, afford sufficient evidence of their having been appreciated by those at whose express invitation they were given:

"At a meeting of the Mercantile Library Association, held on Monday evening, November 19, 1838, the following resolutions were adopted:

"Resolved, That the course of lectures on Egypt and Palestine, delivered by J. S. Buckingham, Esq., before this association, merits our highest approbation, both for the valuable historical information imparted, and the interesting and eloquent manner in which they were delivered.

"Resolved, That, in parting with one with whom so many happy, and, we trust, useful hours have been passed, we cannot refrain from offering him our ardent wishes for his future prosperity and success, wherever his propensity to travel may lead him.

"ISAIAH M. ATKINS, Jr., President.

"W. L. WESTON, Secretary."

At such intervals of leisure as I could command, I attended the lectures delivered by others in Boston, and received much gratification from them all. Among others was a course on phrenology, delivered by Mr. George Combe, of Edinburgh, in the Temple, to an audience of from 250 to 300, which drew together the disciples made by Dr. Spurzheim at his visit a few years since, and gathered others around this nucleus. Mr. Combe was well received, his labours highly appreciated and publicly commended; and such portions of the course as I had the good fortune to be able to hear

were full of interest and instruction. I heard also a very eloquent lecture by the Honourable Caleb Cushing, of Newburyport, one of the representatives of Massachusetts in Congress, delivered before the Lyceum at the Odeon, on the influence of Christianity in the elevation of women, and the benefits which this had produced in the world. I had the pleasure also to hear a very learned and interesting lecture by his excellency, the governor of the state, delivered at the Warren-street Chapel, on the Voyages of the Northmen to the Continent of America, nearly 500 years before the time of Columbus. This historical fact was established beyond all doubt from the evidence adduced by him on this subject, though the obscurity into which so interesting a visit to, and occupation of, the territory about Rhode Island and Massachusetts had subsequently fallen—as it appears to have been wholly forgotten in the time of Columbus—is among the features of the case the most difficult to explain.

Besides the regular evening course of lectures delivered by me to the Mercantile Library Association, an afternoon course on the same subject was given to the public generally in the Marlborough Chapel in Washington-street, which was also well attended, but less by men of business than by ladies and pupils. The president and some of the professors of the Cambridge University, with many of the clergy and most of the Sunday-school teachers—who are not, as in England, composed of persons from the middle ranks of life only, but include the younger branches of the most opulent families in the state—were among this audience. We attended Madame Caradori Allan's concerts also with as much gratification as ever; and having had the pleasure of knowing her and her excellent husband in England, we were glad at the opportunity of meeting in the same house, and enjoying much of their amiable and agreeable society.

Among the gratuitous labours in which I had the privilege of being engaged, was the delivery of a lecture to the members of the Franklin Institute at the Temple, and the advocacy of the claims of seamen in two separate public meetings, held, one at the Marlborough Chapel, and the other at the Odeon, at an interval of some weeks apart. The former was on behalf of "the Sailor's Home," an establishment supported by the Trinitarian section of Christians, under the presidency of Mr. Pliny Cutler and the chaplaincy of the Rev. Mr. Lord; and so well conducted as to be productive of the greatest good in rescuing the seamen who can be prevailed upon to take up their quarters there, from the horrors of drunkenness and misery which await them in all the ordinary establishments. At this meeting, which was held on a Sunday evening, there were believed to be 2500 persons present, and upward of 1000 are said to have been obliged to go away for want of room. The addresses of the evening produced a strong and favourable impression, and several hundred dollars were collected from the audience for the funds of that institution.

The second occasion was for the benefit of the "Mariner's Home," a similar establishment of a larger size, and situated in a different locality. This is chiefly supported by the Unitarian portion of the community; though Father Taylor, who presides over the establishment, and is at once its commander, chaplain, and purser, is not a Unitarian in his doctrine. He was originally a Wesleyan Methodist, and continues to be so still, but upon rather a more enlarged foundation than any of the mere sects of Christians. To use his own quaint sea-language, in which he so cordially addresses his flock of seamen, he says, "We know nothing here of Unitarians, Trinitarians, or any other arians into which mankind are divided. We don't allow such small craft as these to cruise in our deep waters. We all sail here under the broad pennant of pure Christianity." And if ever man's heart and mind was truly catholic, such is undoubtedly Father Taylor's. The meeting on behalf of this institution was also very fully attended, the addresses convincing and impressive, and 500 dollars were raised by a collection from the audience for the funds of the institution.

These occupations brought me in communication with the most influential and benevolent of the inhabitants of Boston, and gave me an opportunity of seeing persons of all ranks and classes, from the highest to the lowest. I attended also about twenty of the churches, heard the most distinguished of the clergy, saw the most crowded congregations, and by these opportunities, added to occasional visits and daily intercourse with the inhabitants, enjoyed abundant opportunities for forming correct opinions as to their general character.

Of the institutions within the city I inspected personally the greatest number, and visited almost all the public buildings, including the Statehouse, Faneuil Hall, the Courthouse, the City Hall, the Custom-house, the Postoffice, the Navy Yard, its dock, ropewalk, and building-sheds, the State Prison, the Hospitals and Asylums, the Public Schools, and, indeed, almost every institution of public interest. These were the means I enjoyed for judging of the things I shall venture to describe.

In the environs of Boston we visited Dorchester, Roxbury, and Milton Hill. We were present at one of the public examinations of Harvard College at the University of Cambridge; and spent a delightful day at the beautiful cemetery of Mount Auburn. Each of these excursions afforded us considerable pleasure, though none were so full of interest as the last.

Among the remarkable public men with whom I had the pleasure to become acquainted in Boston were the ex-president, John Quincy Adams, and the senator Daniel Webster, both of whom I had before met at Washington, but here they were at home; President Quincy, of the University of Cambridge, Governor Everett, of the State of Massachusetts, the Rev. Dr. Channing, Mr. Pierpont,

an accomplished poet, Dr. Harris, the venerable author of one of the most learned and elaborate works I had ever met with on the Natural History of the Bible, and Father Taylor, "the seaman's friend," one of the most genuine sons of Neptune, with all a sailor's virtues, unspotted by the failings so common to the race. In addition to these, we had the pleasure to enjoy the acquaintance, and I believe the friendship, of several private families, whom I do not name, but of whose kindness we shall long retain the recollection.

During our stay at Boston I was invited to deliver my course of lectures at Salem, where I went by the railroad, a distance of thirteen miles, on two days in each week; and though the course was but slightly attended, the audience seldom exceeding 200 persons, I had the pleasure to form some very agreeable acquaintances, and to partake of the cordial hospitality of an English family residing there from Essex in England; persons with whom I had had no acquaintance whatever at home, but who, the moment I arrived in the country, sent me a pressing invitation to visit them at Salem, and desired me, whenever I came there, to make their house my home.

While at Salem I visited several times the interesting museum formed in that town by the contributions of the many sea-captains who sail from that port to various parts of India, China, and the islands of the Pacific, and made also a pleasant excursion to the neighbouring seaport and fishing-town of Marblehead; in a ship belonging to which port, called the *Rising States*, Captain Atkin Adams, I had visited the United States thirty years ago, in a voyage from London to Norfolk in Virginia.

As I purpose repeating my visit to Salem in the summer, I shall defer all description of that city and its environs till then; but I may mention that, during one of my visits here, I was much gratified at the opportunity of seeing "all Salem," as the phrase is, at a military levee which was peculiar to the time. It appears that of late years the military mania, which is so fast dying away in the West, has been revived in the East; and Salem having partaken of it in a large degree, has now several companies of volunteers, who are exceedingly fond of parade days and public displays. A gentleman of fortune, Captain Sutton, who partakes of this taste himself, encourages it in others by giving, on the occasion of public reviews, and at his own cost, a public levee, at which the volunteers, privates as well as officers, and all their families, are invited to partake in the pleasures of the dance, the promenade, and the refreshments of the evening. I was present at one of these, and found it a miniature edition of the president's levee at Washington. "Everybody in Salem was there," was the common mode of describing it; and there was certainly a great variety in the complexion of the company. But, while there was something that might have

been spared by good taste in the richness and gaudiness of the attire, there was as much of female beauty as I ever saw among the same number of persons, and some of the younger faces were exquisitely lovely. The behaviour of all was respectful, orderly, and becoming; and though there was no want of joy and hilarity, yet it never manifested itself boisterously. I do not think that any country except America could furnish, out of such varied elements, embracing all classes of society, two such agreeable and well-conducted parties as these public levees at Washington and Salem.

Such is a brief notice of the chief incidents of our stay at Boston and in its neighbourhood; and it was during this period, and surrounded by these opportunities and sources of information, that I threw into form the scattered facts which I was thus enabled to bring together, and appended to them the opinions and impressions which the subjects themselves occasioned, as they are arranged in the following chapters.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Influence of Institutions on Character.—Early History of Massachusetts.—First Charter to the Plymouth Company.—Origin of the name "New-England."—Arrival of the Puritans.—Charter of Charles the First.—Solemn League and Covenant of the Settlers.—Foundation of Plymouth and Salem.—Boston, Charlestown, Dorchester, and Roxbury.—First Act of Religious Intolerance.—First Representative Assembly.—War with the Indians.—Influence of the Clergy.—Female Assemblies.—Hazelrig, Pym, Hampden, and Oliver Cromwell, Emigrants.—Rigour of the Puritan Laws.—First Federal Union of Provinces.—Foundation of Providence and Rhode Island.—Conduct of the Quakers.—Death inflicted on Quakers for entering the Colony.—Firmness of that Body triumphing over their Persecutors.—Restoration of Charles the Second.—Increased Emigration.—Statistics of New-England at this early Period.—Laws for restraining Indulgence in Dress and Amusements.—Remarkable Men.—Sir William Phipps.—Cotton Mather.—Benjamin Franklin.

As there is no portion of the United States in which the character of the inhabitants has been more extensively influenced, if not almost wholly formed, by the institutions and conduct of their ancestors than in New-England, it is almost indispensable to a right understanding and due appreciation of that character to examine these institutions, and the conduct of those who framed them, for which purpose a brief sketch of the early settlement of these territories will perhaps be acceptable.

It was in the year 1606 that James the First of England sanctioned the planting of colonies in this part of America, then called Northern Virginia; and two separate companies, one stationed at London, and the other at Plymouth, in England, had granted to them the privilege of forming such colonies in these parts. The leading person in the Plymouth Company was Sir John Popham,

then Chief-justice of England, who a few years before presided at the trial of Sir Walter Raleigh, and condemned that distinguished individual, to whom both America and England owed so much, to the death of a traitor. The first expedition, led by two brothers of the judge, sailed from Plymouth in 1607, with about 100 emigrants, in two vessels; and, landing near the River Sagadahoc, they found themselves, in the first period of their stay here, so destitute of means, that all but forty-five of their number were sent back to England; while these suffered so severely from the winter that they lost a great portion of their number by disease, including their president, Henry Popham, before the spring. A vessel then arrived with fresh supplies; but this ship brought intelligence of the death of the Chief-justice Popham and Sir Henry Gilbert, their two most powerful patrons, and this induced them to return to England, where they spread the most discouraging accounts of the region in which so many calamities had befallen them.

Six years after this, in 1614, the celebrated Captain Smith, so renowned for his adventures with Pocahontas in Virginia, was engaged by the Plymouth Company to make a voyage of trade and survey to the abandoned coast, and, after exploring with great care both the coast and the interior, from Cape Cod to Penobscot, he returned to England, and, laying his map and the narrative of his travels before Prince Charles, this generous patron of the gallant captain was so much pleased with the region described that he bestowed on it the name of "New-England," which has always been continued, and which now embraces the six states eastward of the Hudson River, namely, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Vermont, and Maine. So many obstacles, however, intervened between this period and 1619, that the Plymouth Company in this year laid aside all attempts to colonize the quarter in which their first settlement was made.

In 1620 the Puritans, who had fled from England because of the religious persecutions to which they were subject, and had remained ten years in exile at Leyden, resolved to leave Europe altogether and settle in America; and, having procured from the Plymouth Company the grant of a tract of land within their territories, they purchased two vessels, in order to convey 120 of their number to the shores of the New World. The spot on which they had intended to form their settlement was on the banks of the Hudson River; but the Dutch, then in possession of a part of that territory, wishing to exclude these new settlers from their neighbourhood, are said to have bribed the captain of the vessel, who sailed with these emigrants from Leyden, to take them to some spot farther north upon the coast. He accordingly took them as far north as Cape Cod, where the advanced period of the year, and the sufferings and sickness of a long voyage, compelled them to disembark. They bestowed upon the place of their first settlement the name of New-

Plymouth, from the English city of that name at which they last touched, when, driven back by storms after their departure from Leyden, they had taken shelter in the harbour of Plymouth, within the British Channel.

This first year was one of great privation, suffering, and difficulty; but these being at length overcome, they began to frame those institutions which had so powerful an influence on the character of their descendants. Their ecclesiastical constitution was the same as that under which they had lived in their exile at Leyden, and both this and their civil government were founded on the republican principle of the equal rights of man. All freemen who were members of their church were members also of the legislative body, and this continued until 1639, when for the first time a House of Representatives was formed; and these chose annually a governor and council for their executive body. The jurisprudence of England was in most cases their model; but the penalties of the Mosaic code were often intermingled with their laws; and their deep abhorrence of offences against morality, contrasted with their light estimate of pecuniary crimes, is strikingly shown in the fact that, while they punished fornication with flogging and adultery with death, the offence of forgery was only visited with a trifling fine in money. Considering themselves as members of one family, they adopted a community of property, and this continued for three years, when the influx of strangers rendered a return to individual possession, as they thought, necessary.

In 1626, the reign of Charles the First set in motion new causes to augment the number of those who sought refuge from religious intolerance in America, and a non-conformist minister at Dorchester, in England, named White, drew the attention of those who, like himself, sought relief from persecution, to the importance of leaving their homes for a new country. For this purpose, a publication, entitled "General Considerations for the Plantation of New-England," was extensively circulated, and the effect it produced may be judged of from some of the passages it contained. "England," it was asserted, "grew weary of her inhabitants, insomuch that man, the most precious of all creatures, was there recorded more vile and base than the earth he trod on." "English seminaries," it was added, "abounded with so many spectacles and temptations of dissolute irregularity, that vice was there more effectually communicated by example, than knowledge and virtue by precept;" and the declaration then followed, that "The whole earth is the Lord's garden, and he hath given it to the sons of Adam to be tilled and improved by them. Why, then, should any stand starving here, in England, for places of habitation, and in the mean time suffer whole countries, as profitable for the use of man, to lie waste, without any improvement?"

The numbers induced by this stirring appeal were sufficient to
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furnish the means for a new expedition, and the parties purchasing from the Plymouth Company a tract of land—which included all the coast from three miles north of the Merrimac River to three miles south of the Charles River, and in the interior from the borders of the Atlantic to the shores of the Pacific—sent out their first body of emigrants, who, on arriving in Massachusetts, were cordially greeted and assisted by those who had gone before them to New-Plymouth; and in the year of their arrival, 1628, they laid the foundations of Salem.

It was on the 4th of March in this year that the Puritans in England obtained for their exiled brethren in Massachusetts a charter from Charles the First, giving them legal authority to occupy the territory in which they had formed their settlements in America. By this charter the settlers were incorporated into a body politic, empowered to occupy, cultivate, or dispose of the soil they had purchased, and to govern the people who should settle on it. Among the patentees were Sir Richard Saltonstall, of an ancient Northamptonshire family, one of whose descendants, bearing the same name, is the present mayor of Salem (1838); and Samuel Vassal, afterward member of Parliament for the City of London, and distinguished for his patriotic opposition to the arbitrary collection of the ship-money tax in England. A monument was erected to the memory of this individual in Boston, by his great-grandson, from which it appears that he was the son of Sir John Vassal, who, in Elizabeth's time, fitted out at his own cost, and commanded in person, two ships of war against the Spanish armada. In a note to Mr. Graham's excellent History of America, he says, "The son, exerting himself as strenuously against domestic tyranny as the father had done against foreign invasion, was deprived of his liberty, and of the greater part of his fortune, by the Court of Star Chamber. The Long Parliament voted him upward of £10,000 as compensation for his losses, and resolved that his personal sufferings should be still farther considered: 'But the rage of the times,' says his epitaph, 'and the neglect of proper application since, have left to his family only the honour and vote of that resolution.'" Such is the fate of those who are oppressed and plundered for their advocacy of popular rights, and such the hopelessness of ever obtaining justice or redress from either the Parliament or the people!

In the following year, 1629, on the first of May, a squadron of vessels left England, containing 350 emigrants, who were almost wholly Puritans and non-conformist ministers. The object of their voyage being to escape from religious persecution to an asylum of greater liberty, their time at sea was devoted chiefly to religious exercises; and the crews, touched by their enthusiasm, became as devout as the passengers themselves. Their voyage was happy and prosperous, and they reached Salem in safety on the 24th of June.

They had scarcely landed before the whole body, including the previous settlers and the new emigrants, united in a solemn league and covenant, and formed a social contract, by which they undertook to dedicate their future lives to God, and the mutual aid and comfort of each other. There is every reason to believe they were sincere; but such were the crude and imperfect notions of religious liberty that existed at that period, even among men who had fled from religious persecution themselves, that in the very same year in which this solemn league and covenant was made, they banished two brothers, named Browne, who were among the original patentees, for merely dissenting from the model of church-government which the covenanters had framed! But this is, perhaps, the less to be wondered at, when it is remembered that even the great Lord Bacon, in his treatise "*De Unitate Ecclesiæ*," expresses his conviction that "no government could be upheld without uniformity of religious opinions," and that "toleration to sectarians would be impolitic and unsafe." And in the History of New-Hampshire it is stated, that in a work published in that state in 1645, a Christian minister thus expressed himself: "It is said that men ought to have liberty of conscience, and that it is persecution to debar them of it. I can rather stand amazed than reply to this. It is an astonishment that the brains of men should be parboiled in such impious ignorance!"

In August of this year, 1629, a most important change took place in the condition of New-England, as on the 29th of that month the charter of Massachusetts, which before made the governing power of the colony to reside in England, was so modified as to transfer this ruling power to America; so that, according to the language of the historian, "an English corporation, appointed by its charter to reside in London, resolved itself, by its own act, into an American corporation, and transferred its residence to Massachusetts." To this the king not only made no objection, but gave his public assent by a proclamation, in which he gave his royal commendation to the provincial government, and promised it all the aid it would require for its comfort and prosperity. The motive of the king's conduct is supposed to have been a great desire to rid himself of the presence of the Puritans in England, by increasing the facilities and temptations of their emigration to the New World; but, whatever was the motive, the effect was to place the rights and liberties of the settlers in New-England on a much firmer basis than they had ever reposed on before, and to make this a most important epoch in their history.

From this period the work of organization went on with spirit, vigour, and efficiency. A general assembly appointed John Winthrop as their first governor and Thomas Dudley as their first deputy-governor, and these were assisted by eighteen councillors, which formed the first provincial Legislature of New-England.

This act inspired so much confidence in the future stability of the colony, that in the following year, 1630, no less than 1500 new settlers arrived, in a fleet of 17 ships, which reached Salem on the 6th of July; and among these were many individuals of wealth and distinction, who had embarked with a determination "to follow truth and liberty into a desert, rather than to enjoy all the pleasures of the world under the dominion of superstition and slavery at home." They were not so pleased, however, with the situation of Salem as they expected to have been, and began to look around in the neighbourhood for some more agreeable locality. They fixed on several spots around the bay, where more eligible positions were easily found; and thus was planted the first beginnings of Boston, of Charlestown, of Dorchester, and of Roxbury, all within a few miles of each other, and all since so much increased, that Boston may be regarded as one of the most important and influential of all the larger cities of America, while the others are considerable towns, either as suburbs or places in its vicinity.

The first year of the new emigrants was full of disaster, from the severity of the winter, the insufficiency of shelter and accommodation, and the prevalence of a pestilential disease, which swept away many by death; but when spring returned, and new supplies arrived from England, they were enabled to revive and attend to their affairs. Even at this early period, their first act, like that of their predecessors, was one of religious intolerance; for they passed a law that no man should be a freeman, or have any share in the government, who did not conform in all respects to the ecclesiastical opinions and discipline which they chose to set up! A curious instance is mentioned of the influence of the clergy in the province at this time by Hutchinson, who says that the use of tobacco was prohibited under a severe penalty; and in some of the popular books of the colony its smoke was compared to "the fumes of the bottomless pit." Soon after this, however, some of the clergy themselves having acquired a taste for the obnoxious weed, their influence was sufficient to get an order from the local government withdrawing the prohibition and penalty, and leaving tobacco and all its consumers unmolested.

In 1634 the first representative assembly was formed in Massachusetts, the election being by universal suffrage of the freemen; and the representatives, in conjunction with the councillors and governor, forming the Legislature of the province. About this time Providence was founded by Roger Williams, one of the ministers of Salem; Connecticut by Hooker, one of the ministers of Boston; and New-Haven by Nicholas Eaton, a man of large fortune from England, and John Davenport, an eminent Puritan minister.

In 1637 a war occurred between the colonists and the Pequod

Indians; and the influence of the clergy may be judged of from this custom, that when a commander-in-chief of the military force was appointed, his truncheon was delivered to him by one of the clergy, and with each regiment was placed a chaplain, who in all circumstances of doubt or danger was instructed to pray for Divine direction. The manner in which religion was interwoven in the very texture of society at this time is illustrated by the fact, that it was then the practice in Boston for the inhabitants to assemble together in weekly meetings, to discuss the merits and doctrines of the sermons delivered on the preceding Sabbath.

It was the privilege of men only, however, to attend these meetings; but a lady of the colony, Mrs. Hutchinson, the wife of one of the leading members of the community, feeling aggrieved at the exclusion of women from these debates, determined to assert the rights and privileges of her own sex, and established meetings for them, at which she presided. Her followers and admirers increased so rapidly that they soon outnumbered the exclusive assemblies of the males; and at length Mrs. Hutchinson attained to such influence and exercised such power, that the decisions by her authority were fatal to the reputation of those against whose lives or doctrines they were directed. In the language of the historian, "the matrons of Boston were transformed into a synod of slanderous praters, whose inquisitorial deliberations and audacious decrees instilled their venom into the innermost recesses of society; and the spirits of a great majority of the citizens being in that combustible state in which a feeble spark will suffice to kindle a formidable conflagration, the whole colony was inflamed and distracted by the incontinence of female spleen and presumption."*

In 1638 another numerous supply of emigrants arrived in New-England; and in a second fleet about to sail, but which was stopped by an order of council from the king, were embarked, among others, the republicans Hazelrig, Hampden, Pym, and Oliver Cromwell. The king, indeed, became so alarmed at the growing strength and numbers of the Puritans in the Western World, that he demanded the surrender of the patent or charter of Massachusetts, which would most probably have been enforced but for the breaking out of the civil war, which almost immediately followed. At this period, 1640, there were about 4000 families in New-England, and more than 100 ministers of religion. These had founded fifty towns and villages, and erected more than thirty churches and dwellings for the ministers: and all this in addition to the expenditure of upward of 200,000 pounds in equipping the vessels and conveying the emigrants by whom this colony was formed.

The feelings by which these people were knit together were such as to make them all with one accord abjure luxurious habits, and enjoin, by legislative sanction and personal example, the constant

* Graham's Hist. of the U. S. of North America, vol. i., p. 252.

practice of mutual succour and reciprocal aid. The men of larger fortune assisted those of humbler means; and these duties to each other were enforced from the pulpit in such addresses as these: "Remember, brethren," says one of the ministers of New-Plymouth, Robert Cushman, "remember that ye have given your names and promises one to another here to cleave together. You must then seek the wealth of one another, and inquire, as David did, How liveth such a man? how is he clad? how is he fed? He is my brother, my associate, and we ventured our lives together. Is his labour harder than mine? Surely I will ease him. Hath he no bed to lie on? I have two: I'll lend him one. He is as good a man as I, and we are bound to each other, so that his wants must be my wants, and his welfare my welfare."*

Notwithstanding the benevolent spirit in which this advice was conceived, there was yet existing in the community so much of intolerance and bigotry as greatly to overbalance the good which a right estimate of religious privileges would have ensured. By one of the laws of Massachusetts it was enacted, "that all strangers professing the Christian religion who shall flee to this country from the tyranny of their persecutors, shall be succoured *at the public charge* till some provision can be made for them;" and yet, by the same authority, Roman Catholic priests, as well as Quakers, were subjected to banishment and to death if they ventured to return, while the latter were called "a cursed sect," and the severest penalties were imposed on the importation of either the persons or the writings of the Quakers!

So rigid were their rules for the observance of the Sabbath, that all persons were forbidden to run, or even to walk, "except reverently to and from church on Sunday," or to profane the day by sweeping their houses, cooking their victuals, or shaving their beards. Mothers were commanded not even to kiss their children on that sacred day! Adultery was punished by death, but fornication by compelling the parties to marry only. Robbery was punished by branding for the first offence, flogging for the second, and death for the third; but if any crime was committed on Sunday, the ear of the culprit was cut off, in addition to the regular penalty for other days in the week. Blasphemy was punished with death, heresy with banishment. Heavy fines were imposed on people for "observing any such day as Christmas;" and witchcraft and perjury, directed against the life of any one, were punished with death.

Gaming was strictly prohibited, and cards and dice were forbidden to be imported. No assemblies for dancing were allowed; and kissing a woman in the street, even by way of honest and friendly greeting, was punished by flogging! Persons wearing a dress which the grand jury should deem above their station, were

* Belknap's American Biography.

in the first instance admonished, and in the second fined. Women cutting their hair like men, or suffering it to hang loosely on their faces, were also fined. The "selectmen" visited every family, and prescribed the quantity of work in spinning which the young females of the family could execute, and fines were exacted if they fell short of the task.

Usury was forbidden, and no hire was to be paid even for the loan of cattle or agricultural instruments. A male child above sixteen, accused by its parents of rebellion, was liable to the punishment of death; and any person courting a maid without the sanction of her parents was subject to fine and imprisonment! Such were a few only of the most prominent laws, customs, and usages of the Puritan settlers in New-England; and such has been their influence upon the posterity of these ancestors, that many traces, and some not very faint ones, are to be seen in the manners and customs of the present day.

The remaining history of the New-England States may be very briefly told. In 1643 they formed a federal union, and from that period more rapidly advanced in prosperity. In 1646 they began to make efforts for the conversion of the Indians; and so early as 1664, the Bible was printed, for the first time, in the language of the Massachusetts Indians. When Cromwell succeeded to the supreme power in England, he was favourable to the New-England colonies; and, after his armaments had conquered Jamaica, he proposed to the people of Massachusetts to give them this island for their future possession, but they gratefully and respectfully declined his offer.

The persecution of the Anabaptists and Quakers, which occurred in New-England in 1656, is a deep stain upon the character of that age, though it must be admitted that the conduct of the Quakers of that day was characterized by an extravagance of opinion and conduct which it seems difficult to reconcile with the moderate tenets, and meek and pure demeanour of the Quakers of the present day, while the execution of persons for witchcraft is as remarkable a proof of human weakness. As a specimen of the controversies which passed between the sects of that time, it may be stated that Roger Williams, the founder of Providence and of the State of Rhode Island, having, as he conceived, made out a triumphant case against the Quakers, published a book, entitled, "George Fox digged out of his Burrow;" to which this leader of the Quakers published a reply, under the title of "A New-England Firebrand quenched; being an answer to a lying, slanderous book by one Roger Williams, confuting his blasphemous assertions."*

The persecution of the Quakers, however, produced here the same effects which religious persecution has produced everywhere else; it increased the number of the sect, and augmented their de-

* Elliot's New-England Biography.

votion and their zeal. Mr. Graham says, in his history of this period, "Swarms of Quakers descended upon the colony; and, violent and impetuous in provoking persecution, calm, resolute, and inflexible in maintaining it, they opposed their powers of enduring cruelty to their adversaries' power of inflicting it; and not only multiplied their converts, but excited a considerable degree of favour and pity in the minds of men who, detesting the Quaker tenets, yet derived from their own experience a peculiar sympathy with the virtues of heroic patience, constancy, and contempt of danger."

The manner in which these qualities were exhibited was such, however, as at this time of day seems difficult to credit; and yet the facts are supported by the most unquestionable testimony. The same historian says: "In public assemblies and in crowded streets, it was the practice of some of the Quakers to denounce the most tremendous manifestations of Divine wrath on the people unless they forsook their carnal system. One of them, named Faubord, conceiving that he experienced a celestial encouragement to rival the faith and imitate the sacrifice of Abraham, was proceeding, with his own hands, to shed the blood of his son; when his neighbours, alarmed by the cries of the lad, broke into the house and prevented the consummation of this blasphemous atrocity. Others interrupted Divine service in the churches by loudly protesting that these were not the sacrifices that God would accept."

"The female preachers far exceeded their male associates in folly, phrensy, and indecency. One of them presented herself to a congregation with her face begrimed with coal-dust, announcing it as a pictorial illustration of the black pox which Heaven had commissioned her to predict as an approaching judgment against all carnal worshippers. Some of them, in rueful attire, perambulated the streets, proclaiming the immediate coming of an angel with a drawn sword to plead with the people; and some attempted feats that may seem to verify the legend of Godiva of Coventry. One woman, in particular, entered stark naked into a church in the middle of Divine service, and desired the people to take heed to her as a sign of the times, and an emblem of the unclothed state of their own souls; and her associates highly extolled her submission to the inward light, that had revealed to her the duty of illustrating the spiritual nakedness of her neighbours by the indecent exhibition of her own person. Another Quakeress was arrested as she was making a similar display in the streets of Salem."*

If the records of these extravagances were from the pens of writers opposed to the Quakers generally, they might well be discredited; but two authors of their own sect, Bishop, the writer of a work entitled "New-England Judged," and Besse, the author of a work entitled "Collection of the Sufferings of the People called

* Graham's History, vol. i., p. 300.

Quakers," relate similar instances, and either defend or excuse them. Both these writers mention the case of Deborah Wilson, whom they describe as "a modest woman, of retired life and conversation; but, bearing a great burden for the hardness and cruelty of the people, she went through the town of Salem naked, as a sign, which, having in part performed, she was laid hold on and bound over to appear at the next court of Salem, where the wicked rulers sentenced her to be whipped." And Besse records the instance of Lydia Wardel, a Quakeress, who "found herself inwardly prompted to appear in a public assembly in a very unusual manner, and such as was exceeding hard and self-denyng to her natural disposition, she being a woman of exemplary modesty in all her behaviour. The duty and concern she lay under was that of going into the church at Newbury naked, as a token of the miserable condition in which she conceived the people to be. But they (the people), instead of religiously reflecting on their own condition, which she came in that manner to represent to them, fell into a rage, and presently laid hands on her."

This is the language in which the Quaker writers themselves speak of these transactions; and one can hardly wonder that the magistrates of the places named should have endeavoured to put a stop to such proceedings. Three Quaker preachers had their ears cut off, and two were condemned to be sold as slaves in the West Indies, though the sentence was afterward commuted to banishment from the colony. "Such," observes the historian, "was the inauspicious outset of the Quakers in America; a country," he truly adds, "where, a few years after, under the guidance of sounder judgment and wiser sentiment and purpose, they were destined to extend the empire of piety and benevolence, and to found establishments that have been largely productive of happiness and virtue."

In 1658 the magistrates of Massachusetts succeeded in passing a law through the Assembly, inflicting the penalty of death upon all Quakers who should return from banishment; and though it had been once rejected, and was only finally carried by a majority of one vote, it was acted upon in the succeeding year, when four Quakers, three males and one female, who had not been guilty of any of the extravagances named, but had been banished from the colony because they were Quakers, and had ventured to return again, were put to death in Boston for this offence alone! "When they were conducted to the scaffold," says the historian of this event, "their demeanour evinced the most inflexible zeal and courage, and their dying declarations breathed in general the most elevated and affecting piety."

The last of these victims to a bigoted and barbarous law was a Quaker named Leddra; and on his trial it is related that another Quaker, named Christison, who had been banished for his opinions, but had dared to return, went boldly into the court with his hat on,

reproached the judges for their shedding of innocent blood, and told them they would never extirpate the sect by such means as these: "For," said he, "the last man put to death here are five come in his room; and if you have power to take away my life from me, God can raise up the same principle of life in ten of his servants, and send them among you in my room, so that you may have torment upon torment." The hopelessness, therefore, of effecting the suppression of the Quakers by punishment, and the general sympathy of the less bigoted members of the community with the sufferers, caused the persecution finally to die away.

At the restoration of Charles the Second in 1660, the Assembly of Massachusetts sent an address to England acknowledging his supremacy, but in 1661 they found it necessary to make a declaration of their rights to civil and religious freedom under their own provincial government, while the king issued a general amnesty for all the colonists who had taken part with Cromwell in the civil war, and had thus been legally guilty of treason.

In 1666 a large addition was made to the religious settlers in New-England, for in that year a great number of the ministers of the Church of England were ejected from their ministry for refusing to comply with the Act of Uniformity; and these Nonconformists, as they were called, being of precisely the same class and character as the original Puritans, resorted to New-England as a place of refuge. Here they kept up, by their influence in society, the same rigid spirit as that which had hitherto directed the councils and influenced the opinions and manners of its inhabitants; while, by the fresh impetus thus given to the emigration of conscientious laymen, a body of men were introduced into the country whose capital, industry, and intelligence contributed to add greatly to its welfare.

In the year 1673, according to a document procured from the Colonial Office in London, New-England was estimated to contain 120,000 souls, of whom 16,000 were capable of bearing arms; and of the merchants and planters there were not fewer than 5000 persons, each of whom was worth 3000*l.* sterling. Three fourths of the wealth and population of New-England centred in Massachusetts and its dependencies. The town of Boston alone contained at that period 1500 families. Theft was rare, and beggary unknown; and Josselyn, who returned about two years before this period from his second visit to America, commends highly the beauty and agreeableness of the towns and villages of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and the substantial structure and interior comfort of all the private dwellings.

In 1660, some remarkable meteors having appeared in the air, one of which is described as "resembling the form of a spear, of which the point was directed towards the setting sun, and which, with slow, majestic motion, descended through the upper regions of the air, and gradually disappeared beneath the horizon," the ma-

gistrates and clergy availed themselves of the deep impression which these signs created to promote a general reformation of manners among the people. For this purpose they published a catalogue of the principal vices of the times, in which were enumerated "a neglect of the education of children, pride displayed in the manner of cutting and curling the hair, excess of finery, immodesty of apparel, negligent carriage at church, failure in due respect to parents, profane swearing, idleness, and frequenting of taverns, and a sordid eagerness of shopkeepers to obtain high prices." One of the sermons preached at an election about this period, by a minister named Higginson, contains this remarkable passage on the avidity of gain, which was then thought too prevalent a characteristic of the times, though it has not much abated, if at all, since: "It concerneth New-England," says this preacher, "always to remember that they are a plantation religious, and not a plantation of trade. Let merchants, and such as are increasing cent per cent, remember this; that worldly gain was not the end and design of the people of New-England, but religion. And if any man among us make religion as twelve and the world as thirteen, such a one hath not the spirit of a true New-England man."

One of the most remarkable of the men produced by New-England, William Phipps, appeared not long after this, in 1688. He rose from the humble condition of a shepherd to be created a baronet, and to be made governor of the colony of which he was a native. His biographer states that he followed the employment of a shepherd at his native place till he was eighteen years of age, and was afterward apprenticed to a ship-carpenter. When he was freed from his indentures, he pursued a seafaring life, and attained the station of captain of a merchant-ship. An account which he happened to have read of the wreck of a Spanish vessel laden with gold and silver, near the Bahama Islands, about fifty years before, inspired him with the bold design of getting up the buried treasure from the sea; and, going to England for the purpose of obtaining the requisite assistance, he stated his project so plausibly, that the king, James the First, approved of the design, and sent him, in 1683, with a vessel to execute it. The first attempt, however, was unsuccessful, and the king was not willing to make a second. It was subsequently taken up, by the Duke of Albemarle, who equipped a vessel for the purpose, which Phipps commanded; and fortune crowning this second attempt, he recovered at least to the value of 300,000*l.* from the bottom of the sea, of which he retained himself, by agreement, a sufficient portion to enrich him for life, and yet to leave a very handsome residue for his patron and friend. The king, too, instead of being jealous of the good fortune of his second patron, conceived a high respect for Phipps, conferred on him the honour of knighthood, took him into his favour, and even offered him the government of New-England, which Phipps then declined,

though he used all his influence at court to benefit the province. In 1691 he was appointed governor, on the nomination of the deputies from Massachusetts, and by the authority of William the Third.

It was remarked of him, however, says the same authority, as it had been before remarked of Aristides, that "he was never visibly elated by any mark of honour or confidence that he received from his countrymen," and he was never ashamed to revert to his original condition. An instance is mentioned in which, when on board one of the ships of a fleet which he commanded, going forth on a military expedition, he called to him some of the young sailors and soldiers on the deck, and, pointing to a particular spot on the coast which they were sailing by, he said to them, "Young men, it was upon that hill that I kept sheep a few years ago; you see to what advancement Almighty God has brought me; do you, then, learn to fear God and be honest, and you also may rise as I have done."

Another of the remarkable men of these times, produced by New-England, was Cotton Mather, one of their most eminent divines, who was the author of no fewer than 382 separate works! His biographers describe him as "one of the most remarkable economists of time, being at once the most popular and voluminous writer of the day, and yet, withal, the most zealous and active minister of his age." Above his study-door was inscribed this impressive admonition to his visitors, "Be short;" and among his manuscripts was a theological work which he had prepared for publication, and of which they say, "it contained enough constantly to employ a man, unless he were a miracle of diligence, the half of the threescore years and ten allotted to us as the term of life." One of his 382 published works (of which a full catalogue is preserved) was entitled "Essays to do Good," the object of which was to show the abundant opportunities which present themselves to men of every rank and condition to promote the glory of God and the good of mankind; and Dr. Benjamin Franklin, himself a native of Boston, declared, in his printed works, published at the close of his active and useful life, "that all the good he had ever done to his country or his fellow-creatures must be ascribed to the impressions made on his mind by perusing these 'Essays to do Good' by Cotton Mather, in his early youth."

From such a combination of peculiarities as those enumerated, influenced again by events and circumstances arising in the course of years, and from such remarkable men as those described, the institutions and character of the people of New-England have derived most of their excellences and defects. The former, however, have always prevailed to a very great degree, and still happily continue in the ascendant. But as the main object of this brief sketch of the early history of Massachusetts, bringing it up to the beginning of the eighteenth century, was to render more intelligible the description hereafter to be given of the present condition of the

cities, towns, and people of this state, with their manners, customs, and character, it may be well to follow this up by a summary view of the effects produced by the causes already enumerated.

CHAPTER XXIX.

Provision made for Education.—Statistics and State of Manners in Boston.—Gradual Preparation of the Colony for Self-government.—First Outrage on their Liberties.—Impressment of Seamen at Boston.—Successful Resistance by the Population.—Second Infringement of their Liberties.—The Stamp Act.—Representatives from America proposed by the Historian Oldmixon.—Representation advocated by Adam Smith and Franklin.—Eloquent Speech of Colonel Barré in the British House of Commons.—Planting of the Tree of Liberty.—Demolition of the Stamp Office.—Public Journals established, and Sermons preached against the Stamp Act.—Resistance of America applauded by Pitt and Camden in England.—Stamp Act finally repealed.—Third Invasion of Rights.—Project for taxing the Colonies.—Bill for imposing Duties on Tea.—Independence of America proposed by Tucker, Dean of Gloucester.—Characterized by Edmund Burke as a “childish Scheme.”—Admitted by George III. to be a wise one.—Outbreak at Boston.—Seizure of the Tea, and its Destruction.—First Congress formed.—Stirring Appeal of Patrick Henry.—First Blood shed at Lexington.—Battle of Bunker Hill.—Installation of General Washington.—Last Act of the political Drama.—Declaration of American Independence.

THOUGH New-England might be considered as yet in a state of political infancy, it had passed through a great variety of fortunes. It had been the adopted country of many of the most excellent men of the age in which its colonization began, and the native land of others who had inherited the character of their ancestors, and transmitted it in unimpaired vigour and with added renown. The history of man never exhibited an effort of more resolute and enterprising virtue than the original migration of the Puritans to this distant and then desolate region; nor have the annals of colonization ever supplied another instance of the foundation of a commonwealth, and its advancement, through a period of weakness and danger, to strength and security, in which the principal actors have left behind them a reputation more illustrious and more unsullied, with fewer memorials calculated to pervert the moral sense or awaken the regrets of mankind.

The chief, if not the only fault, with which impartial history must ever reproach the conduct of these people, is the religious intolerance that they cherished, and the persecution which, on too many occasions, it prompted them to inflict. On the other hand, institutions for the education of youth were coeval with the first foundation of the provincial community, and were propagated with every accession to the number of the population, and with every extension of their territory. Every town containing fifty householders was obliged by law to maintain a schoolmaster qualified to teach reading and writing, and every town containing 100 house-

holders was compelled to maintain a grammar-school. In addition to this provision for the education of the less affluent classes of the community, institutions for the more perfect education of those who were devoted to learned pursuits sprang up on every side. Of these it is enough to mention Harvard College, now forming the University of Cambridge in Massachusetts, and New-Haven and Yale College in Connecticut, which were in such repute, even at this early period, more than a century ago, that many families in Great Britain sent their children out to these colleges for the excellent education they afforded.

At this period Boston contained a population of 10,000, and in 1720 its inhabitants amounted to 20,000. Ship-building was carried on to a great extent here, and the commerce was enlarging itself every year. Linen manufactures, by Irish hands, were established in New-England, and others followed in other branches of industry; while the feeling of veneration and respect for England was so great in all classes, that, notwithstanding the harsh treatment they had so often met with at royal hands, they constantly spoke of England as their "mother country" or their "home." The standard of public and private morals was at this time also very high. Sobriety and industry pervaded all classes of the inhabitants. The laws against immoralities of every description were extremely strict and most rigidly executed; while the rulers, cordially supported by public opinion, were enabled to render every vicious and profligate excess alike dangerous and discreditable to the perpetrator. Beggars were wholly unknown; and Trumbull, a writer of unquestioned veracity, declares that, during a residence of seven years in Massachusetts, he had never heard a profane oath, or witnessed a single instance of drunkenness.

Labour was at the same time so well paid, land was so cheap, and the elective franchise was so widely extended, that every industrious man might acquire a stake in the soil and a voice in the civil administration of the country. The general diffusion of education caused the national advantages, which were vigorously improved, to be justly appreciated; and a steady and ardent patriotism knit the hearts of the people to each other and to their country. The taxation of the settlers was extremely light and perfectly just, because founded only on assessments according to the extent of each man's property. Justice was accessible to all classes, from being unburdened with heavy costs and fees; the business of government was so cheaply and yet efficiently conducted, that the whole annual expense of the public institutions of Connecticut did not exceed £800 sterling per annum, which was less than the salary of a single royal governor; and the public respect for distinguished patriots was constantly manifested by the admiration by which they were surrounded while living, and the honours paid to their memory when dead.

It can hardly be wondered at that such a colony as this should soon attain to a capacity for self-government, independently of any foreign aid ; and that the consciousness of its capacity should grow up in the minds of all men, as time and experience developed to their observation the grounds on which their claim to independence might be fairly and justly asserted. Accordingly, as the province increased in wealth, population, intelligence, and enterprise, its inhabitants became more and more sensitive to any invasion of what they deemed their just rights and privileges. An occasion arose in which this feeling was put to the test, and which may, perhaps, be regarded as the first distinct link in the great chain of events, which subsequently led to their throwing off, at once and forever, all allegiance to England, and asserting the political independence which they so bravely maintained and have so long happily enjoyed. The occasion of that outrage of the English and resistance of the New-Englanders is thus narrated :

A squadron of British ships, under the command of Commodore Knowles, was stationed on the coast of Massachusetts in 1747, for the general protection of the trade of the colony, and, having lost many of their seamen by desertion, the commodore resorted to the English method of impressment for the purpose of supplying their places. The town of Boston was the scene of this operation ; and the boats of the squadron being sent on shore at daylight, before any one was aware of the proposed visit, the press-gangs not only seized all the seamen that were on board the merchant ships lying in the harbour, but swept the wharves also of all the workmen they could find who were likely to be made useful in any way on board the ships-of-war. This was an outrage which the free spirit of the New-Englanders was determined not to brook, although the Old-Englanders had submitted, without resistance, to the frequent perpetration of similar outrages by the press-gangs that range the Thames, and sweep the streets of Liverpool, Bristol, Portsmouth, and Plymouth, when men are wanted for the navy of Great Britain, at the very moment when the national theatres are echoing the well-known line,

“ For Britons never will be slaves.”

The popular indignation excited at Boston by this outrage pervaded all classes ; and a number of the inhabitants, arming themselves without delay, repaired to the government-house, at which some of the English naval officers were then staying, to demand redress. The English officers armed themselves with carbines for defence, and, but for the intervention of the governor and some of the most influential citizens to stay the popular fury, blood must have been shed. The firmness of the people in demanding redress was, however, not to be shaken, and they persevered until they obtained the release of their fellow-citizens who were impressed. So effectual was this resistance, that Commodore Knowles was obliged

to leave the station with his squadron, and the provincial authorities did not dare to inflict any punishment on those who had led the populace in their just demand for retribution.

In the following year, 1748, the first project was entertained by the British cabinet of taxing the American colonies generally for the support of the British government; and this, though frequently talked of, put aside, and again renewed, was at length determined on, when, in 1764, the British ministry proposed to introduce the Stamp Act into America. It was in vain the people remonstrated against this, by declaring that "the taxation of the colonies by a parliament in which they are not represented would necessarily establish this melancholy truth, that the inhabitants of the colonies are the *slaves* of the Britons from whom they are descended." Some thought, indeed, that the differences between the mother-country and the colonies would best be settled by the latter being directly represented by members of their own in the British House of Commons, an opinion first suggested by the historian Oldmixon, and subsequently maintained by the high authorities of Benjamin Franklin and Adam Smith, the author of the "*Wealth of Nations*," as well as by one of the most popular of the American writers of the day, James Otis, the author of some of the most spirited remonstrances against British encroachment on colonial privileges; but this plan never found sufficient favour with the general public in either country to be pressed for adoption.

In 1765 the project of the Stamp Act was debated in Parliament, and on this occasion the first great display was made of the antagonist principles by which the oppressors and friends of the American colonies regulated their respective conduct. These are at once so concisely and so clearly exhibited, in a short passage of the history of those times, that it cannot be put in a briefer compass or more striking light than by transcribing the passage entire.

"One of the earliest measures that was proposed in this session of Parliament (1765) was Grenville's bill for imposing a stamp-duty on the American colonies. On the first reading of the bill it was opposed as an unjust and oppressive measure by Colonel Barré, an officer who had served with the British army in America, and who was highly distinguished as an eloquent and zealous advocate of the principles of liberty. Charles Townsend, another member of the House, who afterward succeeded to the office of Grenville, supported the bill with much warmth, and after severely reprobating the animadversions which it had received from Colonel Barré, concluded his speech by indignantly demanding, 'And now, will these Americans, children planted by *our* care, nourished by *our* indulgence until they are grown up to a high degree of strength and opulence, and protected by *our* arms, will *they* grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?'

"Barré, in an explanatory speech, after repelling the censure that had been personally addressed to himself, thus forcibly replied to the concluding expressions of Townsend: "*They* planted by *your* care!" No! your *oppressions* planted them in America. They fled from your tyranny to a then uncultivated and inhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and, among others, to the cruelty of a savage foe, the most subtle, and, I will take upon me to say, the most formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth; and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they preferred all hardships to those which they had endured in their own country from the hands of men who should have been their friends. "*They* nourished by *your* indulgence!" No! They grew by your *neglect* of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some members of this House, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them: men, whose behaviour on many occasions has caused the blood of those "*sons of liberty*" to recoil within them: men, promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own. "*They* protected by *your* arms!" No! They have nobly taken up arms in *your* defence, and have exerted a valour, amid their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior part yielded all their little savings to their emolument. And believe me—REMEMBER, I THIS DAY TOLD YOU so—that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, *will accompany them still*. But prudence forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows I do not at this time speak from motives of party spirit; what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart.* However superior to me in general knowledge and experience the respectable body of this House may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you, having seen and been conversant with that country. The people, I believe, are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has; but they are a people jealous of their liberties, and *they will vindicate those liberties* if ever they should be violated!"*

Though this just and forcible speech had not sufficient influence on the British House of Commons to arrest the fatal measure in its progress—for it passed by a majority of 250 against fifty in the Lower House, went wholly unopposed, and even unobserved upon, through the Upper House, and immediately received the royal assent—yet its republication in America added fresh fuel to the flame already lighted up there; and the patriots of this country appropri-

* Graham's Hist. of the United States, vol. iv., p. 192.

ated to themselves the animating title of the "Sons of Liberty," by which Colonel Barré had designated them in the Parliament of the mother-country; Patrick Henry arose like a brilliant star in Virginia, the light of which spread rapidly over all the surrounding region.

In Boston, the tree of liberty was planted in the main street, the effigies of the promoters of the Stamp Act were exhibited to public scorn, and the stamp-office, just erected, was levelled to the ground. Sermons were preached from the pulpit from the words "I would they were even cut off which trouble you." A public journal was established, having for its device or headpiece a snake cut into several pieces, each marked with the name of one of the American provinces, and the whole surmounted with the motto, "Join or Die." Another gazette was issued, with the motto "Vox populi, vox Dei!" and underneath it the text, "Where the Spirit of the Lord is, there is Liberty." The Stamp Act was reprinted and proclaimed in the public streets, under the title of "The folly of England and ruin of America;" and when the first ships from England arrived, bringing with them the stamped papers that were to be used in the colonies, all the vessels in the harbours hoisted their colours half-mast high; a melancholy peal was tolled from the muffled bells of the churches; and before the arrival of the day on which the use of the stamps was to commence, such was the universal unpopularity of the measure, that every individual who had received the government appointment of stamp distributor in the country had resigned his office, from fear of popular fury.

This resistance of the colony to the authority of the mother-country excited, of course, the liveliest interest at home; and in the debates in the British Parliament, the speeches of the first William Pitt (afterward Earl of Chatham), and of Lord Camden, excited great attention. Pitt said, "Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people; so dead to all the principles of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest;" and Lord Camden said, "I will repeat it, and will maintain it to my last hour, that taxation and representation are inseparable; and whoever attempts to take a man's property from him without his consent, commits a robbery." The Stamp Act was accordingly repealed, and the independent resisters of oppression in America a second time triumphed over their oppressors in England.

As nations never profit by experience, however, the British government, instead of avoiding the rock on which it had already twice split, rushed on it a third time, and was wrecked, as far, at least, as the entire annihilation of its power and authority in these colonies can be designated by that catastrophe. In 1767 the same blind and obstinate spirit that projected the Stamp Act, devised the

plan of taxing the articles of glass, lead, colours, paper, and tea, imported into America. A bill was accordingly brought in by Townsend, then chancellor of the exchequer, authorizing the king, by sign-manual, to establish a civil list, to an indefinite extent, in every province in North America, with salaries, pensions, and appointments to an unlimited amount; and the bill provided, that after the liquidation of the civil list, the residue of the revenue derived from these duties on the newly-taxed articles named should abide the disposal of the British Parliament.

The bill was opposed by two members only of the House of Commons, and soon became law. It is remarkable that, after the experience of the past, there should have been only one Englishman who at that period lifted up his voice in favour of the only true remedy for these disputes, namely, the peaceful separation of the two countries, and that that one person should be a dignitary of the Established Church, Dr. Josiah Tucker, then Dean of Gloucester, who in 1771 published a pamphlet, in which he openly recommended an immediate separation of the two countries, and a formal recognition by England of the American States. The principle on which he founded this recommendation was this, that "when colonies have reached such a degree of wealth and population as to be able to support themselves, the authority of the parent state whence they emanated must necessarily be trivial and precarious; and that, consequently, in all cases of this kind, it is the dictate of prudence and sound policy that the parties, instead of waiting to be separated by emergent quarrel and strife, should dissolve their connexion by mutual consent."

Yet this sound principle and this excellent advice were equally repudiated and disregarded by all parties, and their wise and benevolent promulgator regarded as a "visionary;" the common fate of men in advance of their time. Even Edmund Burke characterized this proposal in the House of Commons as a "childish scheme." But Watkins, in his life of the Duke of York, states that, "after the independence of America had been irrevocably conceded by the treaty of Paris, George the Third, meeting Dean Tucker at Gloucester, said to him, 'Mr. Dean, you were in the right, and we were all in the wrong.' And yet, at the present hour, when the same principles are advocated and the same advice given, respecting the Canadas and the other British colonies that yet remain, it is sneered at with the most contemptuous disdain, and the utterers of such counsel are characterized either as "visionary enthusiasts," or as treasonable enemies to British interests. So entirely does the experience of the past seem to be thrown away upon those who rule the destinies of nations.

At length the crisis arrived in which the last act of resistance was to be performed preparatory to the great revolution which was to set them free. In 1773, a large quantity of tea was sent to the

principal ports of America by the East India Company, to test this experiment of making the Americans consume articles taxed in England, and thus contribute to swell the revenues of the mother-country. At New-York and Philadelphia the people forced the ships to return to England with their cargoes untouched. At Charleston the tea was landed and placed in warehouses, where it was suffered to perish. At Rhode Island an association of women was formed, to abstain from, and discourage the use of, tea altogether. And at Boston the cargoes were seized by the populace and thrown into the sea.

From this moment the flame began to gather such strength, and to spread so far and wide over every part of the country, that all hope of extinguishing it seemed vain. In 1774 a general Congress was formed of delegates from all the American States. Town-meetings were also held in every place of importance; and the Suffolk resolutions, passed in the town of Boston, declared "that no obedience is due from this province to either or any part of the recent acts of the British Parliament, but that they should be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America." The first American Congress met on the fifth of September, 1774, and Randolph, Patrick Henry, Lee, Hancock, Livingston, Jay, and Washington were among its most distinguished members. The number of the members was 55, and the free population which they collectively represented amounted to upward of three millions of people. Of the character of their proceedings some estimate may be formed by the language of Lord Chatham, who said "that, notwithstanding his ardent admiration of the free states of antiquity, the master-spirits of the world, he was constrained to acknowledge that, in solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conduct, the American Congress was second to no human assembly of which history has preserved the memorial."

In 1775 the necessity of appeal to arms was universally apparent, and the eloquent speech of Patrick Henry was re-echoed from every tongue in the land. "There is no longer any room for hope," he said; "an appeal to arms, and to the God of Hosts, is all that is left us. They tell us that we are weak, and unable to cope with so formidable an enemy. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be when our supineness shall have enabled our enemies to bind us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak if we make use of those means which the God of nature has placed in our power; three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as ours, are invincible by any force which an enemy can send against us. Nor shall we fight our battles alone. That God which presides over the destinies of nations will raise up friends to aid us. The battle is not to the strong alone, but to the vigilant, the active, and the brave. Besides, we have no longer a choice. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from

the contest. There is no retreat but in submission and slavery. Our chains are forged. Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston. The war is inevitable; and let it come! Gentlemen may cry peace, peace, but there is no peace. The war is actually begun!"

This was said on the 23d of March, and on the 19th of the following month, April, the first blood was shed, in the affair of Lexington, in Massachusetts, eleven miles northwest of Boston, by the British troops firing on the Americans, and thus becoming the first aggressors. The intelligence of this attack spread like lightning through the country; and old men and young, as well as middle-aged, of all ranks and classes, flew to arms; while the mothers, wives, and sisters of those who went forth to battle enjoined their sons, their husbands, and their brothers "to behave like men, or never to return;" 20,000 men were soon collected to keep the British troops locked up in the peninsula of Boston. The battle of Bunker Hill was fought; the second American Congress was assembled; General Washington was elected commander-in-chief of the forces; the female inhabitants of the county of Bristol, in Massachusetts, raised and equipped a regiment at their own expense. Funds, arms, ammunition, and provisions were liberally raised and accumulated. Judges on the bench gave utterance to their feelings in passages like the following, in their charges to the grand juries: "The Almighty created America to be independent of Great Britain. Let us beware of the impiety of being backward to act as instruments in the Almighty hand, now extended to accomplish his purpose."

Lafayette of France, and Kosciusko of Poland, joined the American army, which, while it had Washington at its head, had also such men as Reed of Pennsylvania, who had declined a most lucrative practice as a barrister to become a volunteer in one of the regiments of Massachusetts among its privates; and who, when he afterward rose, by his skill and valour, to be adjutant-general of the army, and was sought to be detached from his country's cause by the offer of riches and honours made him by the agents of Britain, replied, "I am not worth purchasing; but, such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy me."

The last act of this great political drama was the Declaration of American Independence on the fourth of July, 1776, an act that will be revered and honoured to the latest periods of time, as long as the English language shall be understood or the memory of this great revolution shall endure; and from this period the birth of American liberty, the commencement of its rapid career of prosperity, may also be dated. The result of this career has been already shown, by the description given in former sections of this work of the progress made by New-York, Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, Maryland, and the cities of these respective states already vis-

ited; and it will be well to show the effects produced by the same course in the increased wealth, population, intelligence, and general prosperity of Massachusetts. But it was thought best to precede this with a brief sketch of the leading characters of its inhabitants, in order to show how such events would be likely to influence the institutions to which they gave rise, and how the examples of such characters would be likely to mould and form those of their posterity; and, this having been done, a description of the present state of Massachusetts, its resources, cities, ports, population, and institutions, will more appropriately follow.

CHAPTER XXX.

Description of the State of Massachusetts.—Extent of Area, Soil, Climate, and Productions.—Manufactures.—Shipping and Commerce.—Colleges and Academies for higher Education.—Public Schools.—Statistics and Revenue.—Religious Establishments.—Sects and Churches.—Legislature of Massachusetts.—Governor.—Number of Members in each House.—Qualifications of Voters.—Scale of Taxation.—Principal Cities, Ports, and Towns of Massachusetts.—Progressive increase of Population from 1700 to 1837.—Analysis of Males and Females.—White and Coloured.—Early attempt of New-Englanders to abolish Slavery.—Opposition to this made by the British Government.—Annals of Boston from 1621 to 1832.

MASSACHUSETTS is so called from the name of the Indian tribe by which it was peopled when the first European settlers landed on its shores. It is one of the earliest in its foundation, and, from the industry, intelligence, and opulence of its inhabitants, it is also one of the most powerful in its influence among all the states of the Union. It is bounded on the north by New-Hampshire and Vermont, on the south by Rhode Island and Connecticut, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the State of New-York. Its average length from east to west is 140 miles, and its breadth from north to south 70 miles. Its area, therefore, contains about 8500 square miles, or 5,440,000 acres. It is called, for distinction, "The Bay State," from the fine Bay of Massachusetts, lying between Cape Cod on the west and Cape Ann on the east, within which Salem, Marblehead, Boston, and its surrounding ports are situated.

Its territory presents three distinct belts from east to west, of which that nearest the sea is a marine deposit, not much elevated above the level of the sea, and is sandy and not very fertile. The second belt is a hilly tract, which is mostly of granite rock, with a scanty soil, succeeding abruptly to the more level plains near the sea. The third belt is more beautiful and more productive, including part of the valley of the Connecticut River, and the mountainous and fertile tract of Berkshire, up to the western extremity of the state.

The soil is extremely varied, from sandy and almost barren tracts to spots of the greatest fertility; every part of the state is well watered by rivers and smaller streams, and in no part of the United States is agriculture better understood, or its processes and operations more skilfully performed. The smallest farms contain at least 100 acres, and the largest do not exceed three times that extent. The roads are better than in any other part of the Union; the fences are also more neatly arranged, and kept in good repair; and the whole aspect of the country betokens intelligence, industry, order, and general competency. Grain of every kind is grown in perfection, and cattle are produced in great variety and abundance. Gardening is better understood and more generally practised in New-England than elsewhere, and vegetables and fruits are more carefully and successfully cultivated than in any other part of the country; so that the traveller is more frequently reminded of the parent-country, Old England, by the neat villages, flowery fields, herds, flocks, orchards, and gardens of her younger namesake, New-England, than he is in journeying through any of the states south or west of the Hudson River.

There are mines of iron in several parts of Massachusetts, especially in the counties of Plymouth, Bristol, and Berkshire; and in each of these counties are establishments for manufacturing it. Lead mines are worked also, and are productive. Quarries of excellent marble exist in Stockbridge, Sheffield, Lanesborough, and Pittsfield. Limestone is abundant in Berkshire, and freestone in almost every part of the state. Soapstone is found at Middlefield, slate at Harvard, Bernardson, and Lancaster; and a fine gray, close-grained granite, equal to the finest Aberdeen stone for building, is obtained from Chelmsford, Tyngsborough, and Quincy, so that all the materials for constructing the most splendid edifices are close at hand.

Commerce, however, is the most distinguishing feature and most general occupation of the inhabitants of Massachusetts; the fisheries form also a large source of employment and profit. Manufactures have been more recently introduced; but, by the operation of the tariff laws, which exclude British goods from competition, and by the constant application of skill and capital, the manufactures of this state have already grown up, within the space of a few years only, to be greater than that of any state in the Union; while internal navigation, and intercourse by canals and railroads, has been so improved of late, that there is now a cheap and speedy communication between every part of the state, from one extremity of it to the other.

The shipping of Boston are second in amount of tonnage to those of New-York only. Its imports in 1837 exceeded 17,000,000 dollars; its exports were above 10,000,000. It is stated that upward of 50,000,000 dollars are engaged in manufactures alone;

20,000,000 are invested in banking capital, and 8,000,000, at least, in insurance offices; while the capital invested in canals and railroads in different parts of the state is thought to be quite equal to the residue of 100,000,000 dollars.

Institutions for the promotion of learning and education were more early founded, and have been more liberally supported, in Massachusetts and New-England generally, than in any other part of the United States; it is this, indeed, that constitutes the true glory of this northern section of the Union. The University of Cambridge, or Harvard College, about four miles distant from Boston, was founded as early as 1638, within less than twenty years after the first settler landed on the shores of the country; and it is still maintained in full vigour, having educated upward of 7000 students. Williams College, in the northwest part of the state, was incorporated in 1793. The Theological Seminary at Andover was founded in 1808, and the college at Amherst in 1825. Harvard has an excellent library of more than 30,000 volumes, and is provided with ample funds. Andover is richly endowed by private bounty, and, within ten years after its first foundation, it received in donations upward of 300,000 dollars from seven individuals only.

Besides these larger institutions for the more finished education of those designed for the higher walks of life, and many private seminaries and academies for the tuition of youth of both sexes, the number of public schools supported at the public expense is greater, in proportion to the whole population, than in any country in the world, Prussia, perhaps, alone excepted. The superintendence of these public schools being a duty undertaken by the secretary of the state, an elaborate and faithful report is rendered by him to the State Legislature every year. The last report presented, for 1837, fills an octavo volume of 300 pages, closely printed, in which is given a tabular return from every separate town, with remarks of the several committees appointed to examine them, forming a valuable annual mirror of the state of education throughout the whole province. From this report I have selected some of the more prominent features, which will show at a glance the statistics of public education at the present moment in Massachusetts.

No. of towns making returns	294
Population, 1st May, 1837	691,223
Valuation of property in 1830, in dollars	\$206,457,662
No. of public schools	2918
No. of scholars attending school	141,837
No. of scholars between four and sixteen years of age	177,053
No. of teachers, males 2370, females 3591	5961
Wages per month, with board, to male teachers	\$25
Wages per month, with board, to female teachers	\$12
Public taxes paid for support of schools	\$465,228
Public taxes paid for teachers' wages	\$387,124
Voluntary contributions in aid of schools	\$48,301
No. of academies or private schools	854

Aggregate of scholars in private schools	27,266
Aggregate paid for tuition in private schools	\$32,826
Amount of local funds for education	\$189,536
Annual income arising from this	\$9571

In consequence of this ample provision for education, there is not a single child in the state for whom gratuitous instruction may not be secured; and, in point of fact, all are educated to such an extent as the means of their parents will allow of the children continuing at the public schools for a greater or lesser degree of time. Within a few years the single city of Boston alone is said to have expended upward of two millions of dollars in support of her literary, religious, and benevolent institutions, in addition to an annual amount of \$200,000, or £40,000 per annum, for the support of public schools alone; while the utmost amount that could be obtained from the British government a few years ago for the whole kingdom of Great Britain was only £20,000, not for a single year, but for an indefinite period. What a contrast does this single fact exhibit between the two nations as to their expenditure for education!

The religious establishments of Massachusetts are as numerous, in proportion to the whole population, as in the most favoured states, and all are liberally supported by the voluntary system. Even among the Presbyterians, the churches are chiefly congregational; that is, each congregation selects and supports its own minister, and manages its own affairs, independently of synods or presbyteries. This is also the case with the Unitarians, Baptists, and Universalists; though the Methodists are governed by a Conference, the Episcopalians by a bishop, and the Catholics by their usual ecclesiastical authorities. All, however, are *maintained* by the voluntary system, though all are not so chosen or appointed. The Presbyterians or Calvinists have 387 churches, the Unitarians 120, the Baptists 135, the Methodists 97, the Episcopalians 30, the Universalists 42, the New Jerusalem eight, the Roman Catholics four, and the Shakers five communities. Among them all, toleration seems now to be so perfectly established, that the harmony of the whole is rarely disturbed, even in the mildest forms of religious controversy.

The Legislature of Massachusetts consists of a House of Representatives, containing upward of 600 members, a Senate of about 50 members, and a governor. The suffrage is nearly universal, the elections annual, and the vote is by ballot. The members for the House of Representatives are chosen for towns, each town in proportion to its population. Boston, for instance, sends fifty-six members, and other towns in the same proportion to the number of its inhabitants; the only qualifications of the voter being citizenship, mature age, residence in the town for which his vote is given, and the payment of a poll-tax of about a dollar and a half per an-

num. The payment of this entitles him to have his name entered on the list of voters; but if the payment is withheld, and his name is consequently not on the list, his vote is not allowed to be given at the poll.

While the House of Representatives represents the *numbers* of the community, the Senate represents its *property*, as the senators are chosen by the counties, and each county sends a number proportioned to the amount of taxes paid by it to the state, the taxes being an assessment on the property of each individual. But while the amount of property determines the number of senators which each county shall send, the voters for such senators are precisely the same as the voters for the members of the House of Representatives, the qualification for the suffrage being the same for each.

There are three classes of taxes paid by individuals to the state, and one other description paid to the General Government. First, there is the town-tax, for municipal purposes, paid by every resident in each town in the state, the proceeds of this being applicable solely to municipal purposes. Secondly, there is the poll-tax of a dollar and a half per head for each voter, which may be called the representative tax. Thirdly, there is the tax on property, according to the county assessment, which goes to the funds of the state. And, fourthly, there are the duties paid on foreign produce and manufactures imported, and paid at the Custom-house, which goes to the revenue of the General Government, and is under the control of the Congress of the United States.

The municipal tax in Boston, where it is heaviest, does not exceed *one* per cent. on the assumed property of the individual; but, though the assessment is rarely higher than one half of the actual property known and admitted to be possessed by the party taxed, thus making the tax only half per cent. on his actual wealth, it is often evaded by the very richest of the inhabitants, who leave their town residences before the 1st of May, pay their town tax in some smaller place near which their country abode may be, and thus avoid their liability to the larger tax, which, as resident inhabitants of Boston, they would otherwise be obliged to pay. The poll-tax is often avoided also by those who do not deem the electoral privilege worth that sum, and who, by neglecting to pay, are not registered, and are by this neglect disfranchised accordingly.

The county-tax on the property of the inhabitants is not to be thus escaped from; but this is even lighter than the municipal.

The heaviest tax of all is the unseen duties paid on foreign commodities; but this is not so unpalatable as the others, because its payment is made in the extra price of the articles; and the display of luxury and wealth which fine furniture, fine clothes, and other external signs of opulence enable those who pay these duties to make among their neighbours, seems amply to repay them, in the

gratification of their vanity, for the sacrifice made to obtain them. This sacrifice, however, they make as light as possible, by procuring, whenever the opportunity presents itself, smuggled goods through private channels; the people of this country thinking just as lightly as any of the old nations of Europe of the crime of defrauding the revenue, though the necessary consequence of this is to place heavier burdens on the more honest members of the community, by whom, of course, the deficiency must be made good, and who are therefore made to suffer for the evasions and frauds of others.

Under the old despotisms of Asia and Europe, where the will of the sovereign or his minister imposes all taxes, and where the people have no voice whatever in the matter, there may be some show of excuse for the oppressed subjects evading the payment of these often unjust imposts when they can; but in a republican country, where the suffrage is universal, and where no taxes or duties can be imposed but by representatives in the State Legislature or General Congress, in the choice of whose members every man has a vote, it is as mean as it is unjust for any one to shrink from the payment of his full share of the necessary contributions towards the support of the institutions under the protection of which he lives. It is, of course, doubly so when done by the rich, as they are the persons whose property is protected by the laws; and they ought, for this reason, to be the most liberal, as well as the most cheerful contributors to the funds, by which alone the army, navy, civil service, judicial establishments, institutions for education, and maintenance of internal police, can be carried on or sustained. Yet, according to the almost universal testimony of the Americans themselves, it is by this class generally that the evasion of the taxes is chiefly practised, in the several ways described.

The principal cities, ports, and towns in Massachusetts, with their respective population, at the census of 1837, are the following:

Boston	80,325	Nantucket	7872
Salem	15,272	Newburyport	6375
Charlestown	8,536	New-Bedford	7592
Cambridge	6,527	Taunton	6042
Lowell	18,010	Springfield	6784

There are many others, whose population varies between 1000 and 5000, and these are nearly all upon the increase; the average rate of which may be seen by the ratio of Boston and Salem at different periods, which is thus given:

Boston.		Salem.		Massachusetts.	
In 1700	7,000	In 1700	2,000	In 1700	70,000
1765	15,520	1765	4,427	1765	227,926
1790	18,038	1790	7,921	1790	378,787
1800	24,937	1800	9,457	1800	422,845
1810	33,250	1810	12,613	1810	472,040
1820	43,298	1820	12,731	1820	523,287
1830	61,392	1830	13,886	1830	619,669
1837	80,325	1837	15,272	1837	801,278

In an analysis of the whole population at the last general census of 1830, the following were the subdivisions :

White males . . .	294,685	Free coloured males . . .	3360
White females . . .	308,674	Free coloured females . . .	3685
Aliens	9,261	Slaves	4
	612,620		7049

These four slaves were the personal servants of individuals coming up from the South, and returned again to the slave state from which they originally came, as no slaves exist among the permanent residents of Massachusetts. Their number was never great in the North at any period of its history ; and it may be mentioned to the honour of the people of New-England, and to the disgrace of the government of Old England, that as early as 1773, three years before the Declaration of American Independence, the Legislature of Massachusetts passed a bill prohibiting all traffic in slaves, which bill would have become a law but that the British governor, Bernard, acting under instructions from the British ministers of the crown, refused to give it his assent ; and though the same or similar bills were on three subsequent occasions passed through both houses of the Legislature of Massachusetts during Hutchinson's administration, they were all in like manner negatived by the governor, under instructions from the British crown.*

This is a fact which ought always to be remembered in all discussions in which America is reproached for still continuing to hold slaves. To New-England, at least, this reproach will not apply ; for, so long ago as the year 1783, the Supreme Court of Massachusetts decided that the declaration of rights contained in the first article of the general Constitution, asserting that " all men are born free and equal," is a virtual and legal abolition of slavery ; and since that decision slavery has ceased to exist by law in Massachusetts.

If the other states of the Union could but be persuaded to see the general Constitution in the same light, and their Supreme Courts to decide in the same manner on its constructive application to this institution of slavery, it would be as effectually abolished everywhere throughout the Union as it has been ever since the period named in Massachusetts. Let us observe the maxim, therefore, " Honour to whom honour is due."

To this general description of the State of Massachusetts may be added a more detailed description of its chief city, or capital. But before entering on a description of Boston *as it is*, it will be inter-

* Mr. Graham, from whose valuable history these facts are cited, says with great justice on this passage, " And yet it was at this very period, when Britain permitted her merchants annually to make slaves of more than 50,000 men, and refused to permit her colonies to withdraw from all participation in this injustice, that her orators, poets, and statesmen loudly celebrated the generosity of English virtue in suffering no slaves to exist on English ground, and the transcendent equity of her judicial tribunals in liberating one negro who had been carried there."—*History of the United States*, vol. iv., p. 326.

esting to cast a hasty retrospective glance over its annals, and select from these some of the most prominent and striking points of its progress, by which the city will grow up under our eye, year by year, to its present noble form and stature.

It was in 1621 that the first exploring party from Plymouth, which had been founded in the preceding year, came to the peninsula on which Boston stands, and which was then called Shawmut, and was under the authority of an Indian sachem named Obbatinemat. It contained an area of about 600 acres, and was then thinly covered with trees. Small as this peninsula was, two small creeks, which were filled at high water, divided the peninsula into three little islands, each of these being a separate hill, and the westernmost, which is the highest, terminating in three peaks. From this circumstance the Indians called the place Shawmut, meaning, according to some, "the living fountains," because of its fine springs; or, according to others, "the hill with three tops;" and the English, following out the last idea, called it "Trimountain" or "Tremont."

In 1626, the Rev. W. Blackstone, an Episcopalian clergyman, became the first white inhabitant of the settlement, by building a cottage on a spot since called after him, Blackstone's Point. In 1628 a tax of £12 7s. was laid upon the colony, of which Mr. Blackstone's single share was 12s., or about one twentieth part of the whole sum. In 1629 Mr. Samuel Maverick fixed his residence on the island now called East Boston, where he built a fort, and mounted on it four guns. He too was an Episcopalian, and was esteemed as "the most hospitable man in all the country, giving entertainment to all comers gratis." A large and splendid hotel, called "Maverick House," occupies the spot at the present day.

In 1630 a large body of emigrants arrived from England, among whom was Mr. John Winthrop, who was made their first governor, and took up his abode at Charlestown, where a church was formed, and a day of thanksgiving and prayer observed for their safe arrival. In this same year the first court of assistants was held on board the ship *Arabella*; and, soon after, the second court of assistants, held on shore, ordered that the name of "Trimountain" should be changed to "Boston," and the church removed there. The reason assigned for this name was, that one of the first Christian ministers, Mr. John Cotton, had been minister of a church at Boston in England, just before his embarkation, and that several of the first settlers came from that town. In this same year, also, the first three children of the colony were baptized in the church of Boston, and were respectively called Joy, Recompense, and Pity.

In 1631 the court ordered that all persons having cards, dice, or gaming-tables should put them away immediately; and a gentleman of Boston was fined because his servant burned two Indian wigwams for mischief. Chickataubut, an Indian chief, visited the

governor, and at dinner refused to eat until the governor had "asked a blessing," and afterward requested him to "give thanks." A person named Philip Radcliffe, for venturing to censure the churches and the government, had his ears cut off, and was whipped and banished.

In this year also the governor began to discourage the practice of drinking toasts at table, so that it grew by little and little to be disused. One Nicholas Knopp was at the same time fined five pounds for taking upon him to cure the scurvy by a water of no value, which he sold at a dear rate, to be imprisoned till he paid his fine, or give security for it, or else be whipped, and be liable to any man's action of whom he had received money for the said water.

In 1632 the first meeting-house was built, and the court ordered that no person should take any tobacco under the penalty of one penny for each offence. In 1634 the representative system was first introduced, the first house for public entertainment and the first store for the sale of English goods were opened, and the first volume of the Town Records was begun. In this year (1634) a man who had often been punished for drunkenness was ordered to wear a red D about his neck for a year.

In 1635 the ministers met at Boston to consider two questions: first, whether they should receive a governor from England, which was decided in the negative; and, secondly, whether they should continue to bear the cross in their banners, which was deferred. The court ordered that brass farthings should be discontinued, and that musket bullets should pass for farthings. The town voted that "any person making hinderance in a town-meeting by private conference do pay a fine of one shilling;" and they farther voted "that our brother, Philemon Porment, be *intreated* to become schoolmaster."

In 1636 a ship arrived from Bermuda with 30,000 lbs. of potatoes, which sold at twopence per pound, and William Maverick returned from Virginia with fourteen heifers and eighty goats. In 1637 forty-eight Indian women and children, taken in war, were brought to Boston and sold as slaves, and two white men were hanged for murder. In 1638 the weather was so cold that the people were obliged to plant their corn several times, and there was also a great earthquake. Twenty vessels, with 3000 emigrants, arrived in this single year. A woman named Dorothy Falbye was hanged "for murdering her child, three years old, in a spiritual delusion."

In 1640 Boston Common was preserved by a vote of the town, "that no more land shall be granted from it," and money was so scarce that all commodities fell to half their usual price. In 1641 there was a training of 1200 men at Boston for two days, "but no one was drunk, nor was there an oath sworn." The harbour was

more solidly frozen over than for forty years preceding; but three ships were built at Boston in the summer. In 1644 *Lady de la Tour* arrived at Boston, and, prosecuting the master and owner of the ship for detention, she received £2000 damages. The winter was so mild that the ground could be ploughed; and a black person brought from Guinea, in Africa, was claimed by the General Court, released, and sent back to his native country.

In 1647 the General Court enacted "that, if any young man attempt to address a young woman without the consent of her parents or the County Court, he shall be fined £5 for the first offence, £10 for the second, and imprisonment for the third." In 1648 Margaret Jones was executed at Boston for witchcraft. In 1649 Matthew Stanley was tried for drawing the affections of John Tarbox's daughter without the consent of her parents. He was fined £5, with fees 2s. 6d., and 6s. for three days' attendance by her parents. In the same year three married women were fined 5s. each for scolding.

In 1651 the court ordered that no person who was not worth £200 should wear any gold or silver lace, or any silk hoods or scarves. In 1656 Mrs. Ann Bibbins was executed for witchcraft, and about the same time "some people called Quakers first came to Boston." In 1658 there was a great earthquake, and three Quakers had their right ears cut off. In 1659 the first townhouse in Boston was built, and two Quakers were put to death.

In 1660 Generals Whalley and Goffe, two of the regicide judges who condemned Charles I. of England to the scaffold, arrived at Boston; and in the same year two Quakers, William Leddra and Mary Dyer, were hanged. In 1662 the General Court appointed two licensers of the press. In 1664 the town voted to have the bell rung every day at eleven o'clock, to call the merchants together at the townhouse.

In 1670 Mr. Josselyn, in his *Journal*, says: "On the south side of the mansion-house there is a small but pleasant common, where the gallants, a little before sunset, walk with the marmalade till the nine o'clock bell rings them home." In 1674 John Foster set up the first printing press in Boston. In 1679 a great fire happened near Dock Square, which burned eighty houses, seventy stores, and several ships, the whole loss being estimated at £200,000. In 1690 the first paper money was issued, and in 1694 the General Court required the selectmen of each town to post on the taverns the names of all drunkards.

In 1701 the representatives of Boston were instructed by the town to endeavour to obtain the abolition of slavery. In 1704 the first newspaper in Boston was published, under the title of "*The Boston News' Letter*," edited and issued by John Campbell, the postmaster. The Western post then left Boston for Hartford, in Connecticut, once a fortnight. In 1708 Ezekiel Cheener died,

aged ninety-three. He was schoolmaster of Boston for thirty-eight years; he wore his beard, and is called in the *News' Letter* "the ancient and honourable master of the free-school." In 1709 the newspapers contained advertisements of "negro men, women, and boys to be sold; inquire at the postoffice." In 1711 another announced "An Indian boy and girl to be sold;" and in 1714 another announced "A Carolina Indian man to be sold."

In 1725 James Cochrane received from the town funds £200 for the scalps of two Indians; and Captain Lowell and his men were paid £1000 for the scalps of ten Indians, with whom the people of Boston were then at war. In 1730 the centennial celebration of the settlement of Boston was omitted, on account of the sickness, 480 persons having died in the city alone of the small-pox. In 1732 a young man, taken by the Indians before he was two years of age, and kept twenty-two years, came to Boston in search of his unknown parents, who were afterward found at Kittery.

In 1750 the first theatrical exhibition was given at a coffee-house in State-street. In 1752 an Irish maid-servant was advertised "to be sold for four years;" and about the same time there were also advertised "To be sold, Guernsey boys and girls, for a term of time, on board the sloop *Two Brothers*." In 1756 a man was paid £40 for an Indian scalp. In 1774 lamps were first lighted in the streets of Boston. In 1788 mass was first celebrated in Boston by the Roman Catholics.

In 1791 the first museum was opened in Boston. In 1794 the first theatre in Federal-street was opened; and in the same year the Massachusetts Historical Society and the Boston Library were incorporated. In 1798 the new Statehouse was first occupied. In 1800 the Boston Municipal Court was established, and the almshouse in Leverett-street built.

In 1801 the Boston Dispensary was opened. In 1803 the Boston Female Asylum was incorporated. In 1807 the Boston Athenæum was opened. In 1811 the Massachusetts General Hospital was incorporated. In 1812 the Howard Benevolent Society was organized; and in the same year the first Sunday-school established in New-England was opened. In 1814 the Boston Asylum for Indigent Boys was established. In 1815 the Haydn and Handel Society for cultivating Sacred Music was organized; and in the same year the Massachusetts Peace Society was formed.

In 1822 Boston was first incorporated as a city. In 1823 the Penitent Female Refuge was incorporated. In 1825 the Prison Discipline Society was formed, and a High School of girls established. In 1826 the House for Juvenile Offenders was opened. In 1827 the Boston Mechanics' Institute was formed; and in 1828 the Boston Infant School Society was instituted.

In 1830 the American Institute of Instruction was organized; and

the Boston Lyceum instituted; and in this year the second centennial celebration of the foundation of Boston was celebrated.* In 1832 the New-England Anti-Slavery Society was formed, the Young Men's Temperance Society was instituted, and the New-England Institution for the Blind was opened.

It is impossible to review this sketch, slight as it is, and in which only the most prominent and characteristic facts are mentioned, without being struck with the growing attention in later years to moral and benevolent objects, in the formation of institutions for the education of the young, and for relieving the wants and soothing the infirmities of the old, as well as for affording the means of innocent and intellectual gratification to all classes, an honour of which the promoters of such works may well be proud.

CHAPTER XXXI.

Description of the City.—Streets and Dwellings.—Boston Common.—Hotels and Boarding-houses.—Statehouse.—Extensive panoramic View.—Legislative Chambers.—City Hall.—Faneuil Hall.—Cradle of American Liberty.—Courthouse.—Jails and Custom-house.—The Odeon, Masonic Temple, and other Halls.—Literary Institutions.—Boston Athenæum.—American Academy of Arts and Sciences.—Library Society and Columbian Library.—Society of Natural History.—Massachusetts Historical Society.—Mercantile, Mechanic, and Apprentices' Libraries.—Lectures delivered in Boston.—Governor, Ex-president, Senators, Judges, Physicians, and Divines.

THE site of Boston, like that of all the large cities and ports of the United States, is commanding, beautiful, and advantageous, and the noble bay which lies before it, studded with islands, and yet immediately accessible to the ocean, makes it almost equal New-York in its maritime advantages, and gives it a great superiority over Philadelphia and Baltimore in this important feature. Being built on an area of unequal surface, with elevations and depressions, it has a greater resemblance to Baltimore than to New-York or Philadelphia, which are on more level sites. The general aspect of the city, as you approach it by land or by sea, is imposing, from the rising slopes of the buildings, the numerous steeples of the churches, and the crowning dome of the lofty Statehouse, which, standing on the highest ridge of the city, is rendered strikingly prominent in every view of the picture, and forms a most appropriate and beautiful elevation in the centre of the whole.

The piece of land covered by the city of Boston is a peninsula, nearly resembling an irregularly oval circular island, connected with the mainland by a very narrow neck. This peninsula is about three miles in length and a mile and a half in breadth; but the

* An ode written for this celebration will be found in the Appendix, No. VI.
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narrow isthmus or neck which connects it to the mainland is not more than a few yards across. It is thus surrounded on all sides, except at this narrow neck, by the sea, and affords ample space and accommodation for wharves, warehouses, docks, and ships.

It is surrounded by large and populous suburbs, such as Charlestown, Cambridge, South Boston, and East Boston, to each of which it is joined by a bridge of the requisite length, excepting only the last, where the passage requires to be kept open for large ships, and where a steam ferry-boat, which crosses every five minutes, answers every purpose of a bridge. Thus all the suburbs are in constant and easy communication with the city, though its marine boundary will always keep its own peninsular site separate and distinct from all its surrounding settlements.

The plan of Boston is the most irregular of that of any city in the United States; arising partly, no doubt, from the undulating irregularity of its surface, but still more from the indifference of the early settlers to that symmetry for which Philadelphia and many other of the American cities are so remarkable. In all the more recent improvements of the old parts of Boston, as well as in all the new additions to it, this irregularity has been corrected and avoided; so that, though the streets are winding and crooked in some places, they are straight and symmetrical in many more; and, on the whole, the aspect of the city is far from disagreeable, even in its worst parts, while in its best it may be truly said to be beautiful. As is usual in seaport towns, the places of business, in warehouses, counting-houses, banks, insurance offices, &c., are near the water. Among these, Faneuil-market and State-street may be regarded as fine specimens of street architecture. Cornhill, Washington-street, and Tremont Row are the most busy places of the interior or heart of the town, and each of these is of ample breadth, and lined on each side with spacious and commodious

buildings, those of Tremont Row being as elegant in its shops as Ludgate Hill or Regent-street in London.

The streets of private residences in the quieter parts of the city, such as Pearl-street and Summer-street, in the heart of the town, and the still more fashionable quarters of Park-street, Beacon-street, and the neighbourhood of the Statehouse and the Common, are as fine as are to be seen in any city of England, London, perhaps, alone excepted. This Common, as it is called, or "The Park," as it might with propriety be designated, with the fine view of the surrounding country from its more elevated parts, and the noble trees and gravel-walks throughout, is only inferior in size and beauty to Hyde Park, Regent's Park, and the Green Park in London; and is greatly superior to any similar enclosure in New-York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore. It covers an area of seventy-five acres, and has upward of 600 trees planted in it. The whole is enclosed with an ornamental iron fence or railing, which cost 90,000 dollars, or nearly £20,000. Within it is a fine sheet of water, surrounded with elms, called "The Crescent Pond;" and very near the centre of the whole are the remains or traces of a fortification, thrown up by the British troops who were stationed here in 1775.

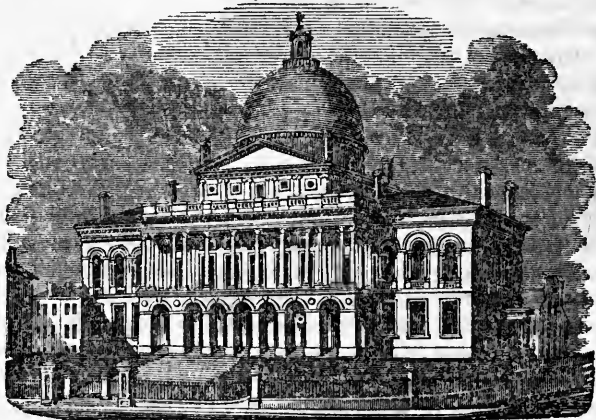
The Common is surrounded on three of its sides by noble rows or terraces of houses, like the parks in London; and as it was originally granted for the public use, and any farther encroachment upon it rendered impossible by a clause in the last charter of the city, it is of the utmost value to the inhabitants. It is not merely a beautifully ornamental appendage to their noble city, but is used as a place of healthful and innocent recreation for all classes, as a spot of constant exercise and promenade; and it is impossible to witness its advantages without regretting that every town in England is not provided with a similar extent of public grounds for the delight and enjoyment of its population.

The most striking feature in the general aspect of the buildings and streets of Boston, whether in the business quarter, or "heart of the city," as it is called, or in the more private and fashionable quarters, is the solidity and substantiality of their exterior, and the amplitude of comfort in their interior. There are few or no wooden houses to be seen, as in New-York or Philadelphia: stone and brick are the chief materials of the buildings, and these are of the best kind. The surbasements and steps are usually of the finest granite; the doors are mostly sheltered by tasteful porticoes, and handsome iron railings surround the areas. Bowed projections, for bay windows, are often seen in the fronts; the window-frames are large, and the glass windows beautifully clean. Balconies adorn most of the houses, and small plots of grass or garden ground, with tall and stately trees, are seen in many of the streets. Everything, indeed, betokens the presence of great wealth, very equally divided and diffused; no one living in ostentatious display, but all possess-

ing ample means, and expending them in real and substantial comfort rather than in extravagant show. The cleanliness of every part of the city is as remarkable as is its air of comfort. No dilapidated houses or untenanted dwellings meet the eye; the streets are well paved, well lighted, and well swept and drained; many of the less-traversed ones are macadamized; and neither mud in the wet weather nor dust in the dry occasions half the inconvenience that both do in New-York especially.

The hotels of Boston are equal to those of any city in the Union. The Tremont House is nearly as large as the Astor House in New-York, and much more agreeable, because it is much more quiet and less crowded. The boarding houses are not so numerous, but appear to be of a higher order, and more select in their guests than those of the Atlantic cities generally. The hours of meals are not so early in either as in corresponding establishments of the same kind elsewhere, and there is not the same hurry and bustle in despatching them, as persons remain at table much longer than we had ever observed them to do before.

Of the public buildings of Boston, the Statehouse is in every



point of view the principal and most important. It occupies a most commanding site, on the most elevated point within the city, not far from its centre, having the noble Common immediately in front of it, and the two fine rows or terraces of Beacon-street on its right, and Park-street on its left. It is built on ground formerly belonging to the venerable Revolutionary patriot John Hancock, one of the signers of the Declaration of American Independence, whose dwelling-house still exists close by; and while the scene from its lofty turret embraces, in its extensive panorama, a complete view of every part of the city and its environs, the edifice itself, whose foundations are 110 feet above the level of the harbour, forms a prominent object from every surrounding quarter, and seems,

like a terminating pinnacle, to cap or crown the summit of the whole rising mass of buildings with which all the ascending slopes of the hill are covered.

The foundation of the Statehouse was laid in 1795, and it was first opened for the use of the Legislature in 1798; its whole cost being 134,000 dollars, or about 26,500 pounds sterling. It has a frontage of 173 feet, and a depth of 51 feet. The basement story is 20 feet high, and the principal story above this is 30 feet high. In the centre of the front, this is covered with an attic story 20 feet high, which is crowned with a pediment, supported by a Corinthian colonnade, forming a fine balcony or gallery in front, looking out upon the Common, the city, and the harbour beyond it. The whole is crowned by a well-proportioned dome, 52 feet in diameter and 32 feet in height, surmounted by a circular lantern 25 feet high, supporting a gilded pine cone. An easy ascent is provided to this lantern on the inside; and on the day after our arrival at Boston we ascended here to enjoy the panoramic view, which for extent, variety, and beauty we thought unsurpassed by any we had ever seen in any part of the world. The point of view is at an elevation of 270 feet above the level of the sea; and the numerous suburbs of Chelsea, Charlestown, Cambridge, East Boston and South Boston, with Dorchester, Roxbury, and Milton Hill, are all brought within view at once by a mere turning of the eye in the several directions in which they stand; while the colleges of Harvard University, the public buildings of the Navy-yard, the unfinished monument of Bunker Hill, the long bridges connecting these suburbs with the city—one of these being 3846 feet in length and 40 feet in breadth, and costing 76,000 dollars—and the numerous islands, shipping, and small vessels in motion, scattered over the extensive and beautiful bay, all combine to make up a picture of surpassing interest and beauty.

The interior of the Statehouse has a large hall or lobby in the centre of the basement story, which is 50 feet square and 20 feet high, supported by Doric columns; and at the northern end of this is a noble statue of Washington, executed by Chantrey, in the best style of the art. In the principal story above this are contained the two legislative halls, that is, the Senate Chamber and the Hall of the Representatives. The Senate Chamber is 55 feet long, 33 feet wide, and 30 feet high, with two screens of Ionic columns supporting, with their entablature, a richly-decorated arched ceiling. The Hall of the Representatives is 55 feet square, the corners being formed into niches for fireplaces, with Doric columns on two of its sides, at a height of 12 feet from the floor, forming galleries; the whole supporting a bold and well-proportioned dome, the centre of which is 50 feet above the level of the floor.

The arrangement of the seats for the members is the same as in the Hall of Representatives at Washington; and, indeed, in all the legislative chambers of this country, as well as in the Chamber of

Deputies and Chamber of Peers at Paris; namely, in the semicircular and progressively-elevated form of the old Greek theatre, the speaker's chair occupying the centre of the radius, while the seats form the successive arcs of the semicircle; a form which, for elegance of appearance, comfort to the members, convenience of hearing and seeing, and every other requisite of a public assembly, is greatly superior to any other that has yet been devised. The seats for the members will accommodate 350 with separate desks, and a large space behind these will seat a great number of spectators, without inconvenience to the members; besides which there are two galleries, one for the general admission of the public, and one for members and their friends. A combination of elegance and comfort reigns throughout these chambers, as well as in the council-room, and all the public offices are under the same roof, which might serve as a model to other countries.

The oldest public building of Boston is that which is now called



the City Hall. On the spot where the present building stands was erected the first place for the transaction of public business, so long ago as 1658. This was built of wood, and was twice burned down. The last time that this happened was in 1747, when it was repaired in the following year, in nearly its present form. After the Revolution it was the place of meeting for the General Court till the completion of the new Statehouse already described. It was again thoroughly repaired in 1830, when it was called by the name of the City Hall; and it is now used for the three joint purposes of the Postoffice, the Merchants' Exchange, and the Public Newsroom, for all which it is admirably adapted, being in the very centre of business, in State-street, one of the finest streets of the city.

On the upper floor are the hall of the mayor and aldermen, and the common-council hall, in which the business of the city is transacted; and a great number of the public offices and departments

are here brought under the same roof, to the great convenience of all parties. In the Postoffice no less than 2000 mailbags are made up in the course of every week.

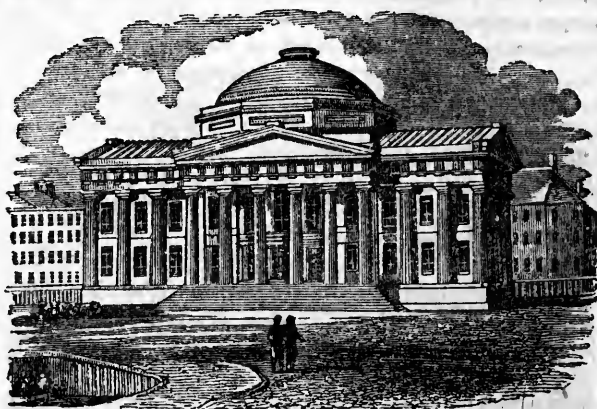
Faneuil Hall, so called from its original proprietor, who built it in 1742, and made it a free gift to the city, is the most popular of all the public buildings in Boston, and is called "The Cradle of Liberty," from its being the place in which the patriots of America met to rouse the people to resistance against the tyranny of their British oppressors. All the great public meetings of the citizens on political subjects are continued to be held here; and "Old



Faneuil Hall," as it is called, is an object of universal veneration. The edifice is of imposing size in its exterior, but not remarkable for architectural beauty.

Its interior, however, furnishes all the requisite accommodation which the attendants on public meetings require. The great hall is 76 feet square and 28 feet high, with a gallery running round three of its sides supported by Doric columns. Raised seats under and in the galleries accommodate the spectators with comfort, while the central floor will contain a very large number of auditors. On the western wall are suspended two excellent pictures: one a full-length portrait of General Washington, by Stuart; another of Peter Faneuil, the donor of the building; and between these is a marble bust of the third president of the United States, John Adams. Above this great hall is another room, 78 feet by 30, used for the military exercise of the city troops, with surrounding apartments for their arms and accoutrements; and the basement story, formerly used as a market, is divided into stores or shops, which produce to the city a rental of about £1000 sterling a year.

The new Courthouse, which is 176 feet by 54 feet, and 57 feet high, is a fine building, and well adapted to the purposes of the legal tribunals held here; and the county courthouse and jails are also handsome edifices of stone. The present Custom-house is, however, inferior in size and accommodation to the scale required for so commercial a city as Boston, though the new edifice, now in course of erection, will be better adapted to the wants and the taste of the times.



Perhaps no city in the world is better furnished than Boston with public buildings adapted to literary meetings and the delivery of public lectures. The first in order and in importance of all these is the Odeon, which was originally built as a theatre; it was then converted into a music hall under its present name, and it is now used as a place of worship by a Presbyterian congregation on the Sabbath, and as a lecture-room during the week. The house retains all its original subdivisions of boxes, pit, and galleries, while the orchestra has been added to the pit, and the stage thrown open to receive a fine organ in the centre, with rising platforms ascending all around it for musical performers. The seats in every part of the house are covered with crimson moreen; all the gilding and theatrical decorations are removed, and the panels are neatly painted; so that nothing can be more simply elegant or more thoroughly comfortable than the interior for both speaker and auditors.

In this building I delivered two courses of lectures of eight each; one course on Egypt, and the other on Palestine, which were attended three times a week by about 1000 auditors. In the same building Mr. Everett, the governor of the state, delivered an opening lecture before the Mercantile Library Association; and Mr. John Quincy Adams, the late president of the United States, Mr. Caleb Cushing, one of their representatives, Mr. Daniel Webster, the celebrated senator, and the Rev. Dr. Channing, the equally celebrated divine, all have lectures to the Lyceum, the Franklin,

and other public societies formed here for the diffusion of useful knowledge, in which the most distinguished men of the country take a deep personal interest, and to which, therefore, they cheerfully give much of their personal attention; another feature of the New-England character which is worthy of imitation or adoption in other lands.

The Masonic Temple is another of the public buildings much used for musical, literary, and scientific purposes. It has the most convenient and agreeable situation in the city for public meetings, facing the Common, in Tremont-street, and is, consequently, in constant use. It was built originally for a masonic lodge, and dedicated as such in 1832. But the odium and unpopularity into which masonry has fallen by the abduction and murder of Morgan, who professed to reveal its secrets, has occasioned lodges to be almost everywhere closed altogether, or, if held at all, to be held in great secrecy. Its style of architecture is Gothic, and its subdivisions include a chapel capable of seating 600 persons, a lecture theatre capable of seating 1000 persons, a hall capable of seating 400 persons, with a great number of smaller rooms, used as school-rooms, committee-rooms, &c., while the Masonic Hall and its smaller apartments for the regalia and the lodges are on the attic story, and are now rarely used.

Besides these principal edifices adapted to public meetings, there are the following: Boylston Hall, Concert Hall, Congress Hall, Corinthian Hall, Pantheon Hall, Washington Hall, Amory Hall, Lyceum Hall, and Chauncey Hall, of varying capacities for accommodating from 200 to 600 persons each.

There are two remarkable buildings in different quarters of the



city. One of these is in the heart of the business part of it, being an old house of the date of 1630, the only relic of architecture that has an air of great antiquity about it, resembling as it does some of the oldest houses in Bishopsgate, London, or Chester, and other old cities of England. The other is in the most fashionable quarter of the town, Beacon-street, overlooking the Common, and close to the Statehouse. This was the residence of the patriot John Hancock, and is occupied by the descendants of his family, with whom we passed many agreeable hours under its venerated roof.



Of literary institutions there are many, and some very distinguished. The first is perhaps the Boston Athenæum, the proprietors of which were incorporated as a body in 1807. It is agreeably situated in Pearl-street, and has a large and commodious building, with all the requisite accommodation for its members. The house, worth at least 30,000 dollars, was the gift of one munificent citizen, the late James Perkins. The books, pictures, statuary, and cabinet were purchased by the funds of the shareholders. Each proprietor's share is 300 dollars, and of these there are 258. Of life subscribers at 100 dollars there are fifty, and of annual subscribers at ten dollars there are about fifty more. Proprietors have three tickets of perpetual admission, life subscribers one; and both of these have the privilege of introducing any number of strangers during their stay in Boston.

All the members of the Legislature, of the judiciary, and of the colleges of education, have free access at all times. The library contains upward of 30,000 volumes; the reading-room is furnished with American and foreign newspapers, and almost every periodical of value at home and abroad. The gallery contains an excellent collection of pictures and statuary; and a lecture-room, capable of seating 500 persons, with a complete apparatus for scien-

tific lectures, completes the establishment, which appeared to me, in all its arrangements and details, to be equal to any of a similar kind that I had ever seen in England, and inferior only to the Institute at Paris, which is undoubtedly the first of its class in the world.

The American Academy of Arts and Sciences is another excellent institution. It was chartered in 1780. Its design is to promote the study of the natural history, productions, and antiquities of the North American Continent, to encourage science in all its branches, and to apply the knowledge thus obtained to the advancement of American interests and American happiness. Its library comprises about 2000 volumes, and it has published four quarto volumes of its transactions, the last of which appeared in 1821. General Washington, President Adams, and many other distinguished men of the country have belonged to it; but it seems to languish at present, amid the more attractive institutions by which it has been since surrounded.

The Boston Library Society was instituted in 1794, mainly with the view of collecting together for general reference such books as are not usually found in popular libraries, including foreign works of celebrity as well as English; and the collection now amounts to more than 7000 volumes, which appear to have been carefully and judiciously chosen. A proprietor's share in this library costs only twenty-five dollars, with annual payment of two dollars for adding to the stock, which is continually augmenting in the numbers and value of the books added to it every year.

The Columbian Library, formed on nearly the same model, but situated in a different part of the city, contains upward of 5000 volumes, and is also constantly increasing in extent.

The Boston Society of Natural History is in active and vigorous operation. It was instituted in 1830, for the investigation of the natural history of the United States, and for forming collections of the various specimens of natural productions from all parts of the world. There are about 300 members belonging to this society, at an entrance fee of five dollars, and an annual payment of three dollars; in addition to which, the State Legislature has granted them 300 dollars annually for five years. The zeal and good taste with which these funds have been applied, in increasing and enriching the museum and cabinet belonging to this society, is deserving all praise; and the stranger who visits Boston will find few objects more worthy of his attention than the beautiful specimens and preservations which this cabinet and museum contain.

The Massachusetts Historical Society, which was incorporated in 1794, has for its exclusive object to collect, preserve, and communicate materials for a complete history of Massachusetts, as well as of the Indians who first peopled it, as of the white race who succeeded them, and of the progress made by these last in arts and

industry. They have an excellent library and museum, and include among their members some of the most distinguished men of the state; and the diligence with which they have carried out the design of the society may be judged of from the fact, that their published "Collections of Papers" amount to twenty-two octavo volumes, and contain a great variety of curious and important matter.

In addition to these there are the Mercantile Library Association, formed chiefly of the younger members of the mercantile community; and the Mechanics' Apprentices' Library, for the accommodation of that class of society. The subscription to the former is two dollars annually, and the addition of a volume to the library worth at least one dollar. To the latter, the only qualification of membership required is that of being an apprentice, and having a certificate from the master under whom they serve that they are worthy of the privilege of attending and using the books of the library.

Besides these facilities for acquiring knowledge, there are courses of lectures delivered every winter in some one or other of the public rooms, to which the admission fee is made as low as possible, hardly ever exceeding a dollar, and sometimes half a dollar, for the whole season, which gives to all classes, at this cheap rate, an opportunity of hearing from twenty to thirty lectures, from as many of the most eminent men in the state, including the governor, senators, representatives, judges, counsellors, divines, physicians, merchants, and others; so that every evening in the week, from the end of October to the beginning of June, there is a lecture or a public meeting, a debate or an address, somewhere or other in the city, at which almost all who desire it may attend. Audiences from 1000 to 1500 are quite frequent at such meetings, all behaving with the utmost decorum, and all evidently taking the deepest interest in the information thus communicated to them. It would be a miracle indeed, therefore, if the members of such a community were not generally well-informed.

CHAPTER XXXII.

Public Schools.—Statistics of Education.—Course of Studies in each Class.—Grammar Schools for English, Latin, and Greek.—Harvard College, or the University of Cambridge.—Exhibition of the Students.—Speech of Mr. Adams on Education.

To prepare the rising generation of Boston for the enjoyment of all the advantages in store for them, great care is taken and great expense bestowed on the public schools of the city. The first class of these are called "Primary Schools," for the education of chil-

dren of both sexes, from the age of four to seven years. Of these there are no less than eighty-three in the city of Boston alone, so situated and classified by districts and numbers as to be accessible to the children in every quarter, and the number of these is every year increasing. The management of these schools is conducted by a board consisting of twenty-four members, two from each ward in the city, who are annually chosen by the town; and these, with the mayor and president of the common council, appoint a committee man to look after each separate school, and to be held responsible for its state and condition. There are, besides these primary schools, fifteen grammar schools, into which those educated in the primary schools are deemed eligible to enter when they have attained to a correct knowledge of spelling and reading the English language.

The primary schools were instituted in the year 1818, for the gratuitous instruction of children from four to seven years of age. The schoolrooms are hired or built by the city in convenient places, each designed to accommodate, on an average, fifty pupils. The services of the board and committee men, though laborious, are wholly gratuitous. The following is an abstract of the report of the Boston schools, presented to the State Legislature for the past year, 1837 :

Population of the city of Boston	80,325
Valuation of its property for taxes	\$80,000,000
Number of public schools in the city	91
Number of scholars in these	9683
Number of persons between 4 and 16 in the city,	17,485
Number of teachers : male, 40 ; females, 119	159
Average wages of teachers per month, including board, males	\$102
Average wages of teachers per month, including board, females	\$20
Amount of city tax for support of schools	\$107,500
Amount of city tax for teachers' wages	\$78,750
Amount of local funds	\$8000

In addition to these, the report adds, "There are a great number of private schools; the number cannot be ascertained, the mode of keeping them, nor the number of pupils attending them. They are generally kept through the whole year, with short vacations. The amount estimated as paid for private tuition is *greater* than that paid for public schools; but the amount cannot be exactly ascertained." Thus speaks the official report.

During my stay in Boston, however, having been invited to give my courses of lectures on Egypt and Palestine to the pupils of the private as well as public schools, in the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday, when their usual studies are suspended, I had the means of learning that the private schools exceeded fifty in number; that, on the average, they educated forty pupils each; and that the expense of the tuition, not including board, averaged at least sixty dollars per annum, which would make the number of pupils

in private schools about 2000, and the annual sum paid for their tuition 120,000 dollars. Seeing by the official report that there are 17,485 children between four and sixteen years of age in Boston, and that of these there are 9683 in the public schools and 2000 in the private schools, there remains a balance of 5802 children between these ages who are not educated in either. These, no doubt, will be found chiefly among the children of emigrants, who, though they can obtain instruction gratuitously, are not permitted by their parents to attend the schools, because their services can be turned to some immediately profitable account at home. It is for this class that the Prussian system of enforcing the attendance of every child at school would be so useful; and were this one feature only added to the American system of education, as it is seen in Boston and Massachusetts generally, it would be complete.

The course of instruction pursued in the primary schools is as follows:

Alphabet on Cards.	Easy Reading Lessons.
Monosyllable Spelling.	The Lord's Prayer.
Numeration, 1 to 100.	Easy Arithmetic.
Dissyllable Spelling.	Punctuation, Reading.
Combination of Numbers.	New Testament.

The grammar schools receive the children at the age of seven years, if they can spell and read English correctly. Boys may continue in these until the annual exhibition after they have reached their fourteenth year, and girls may continue till they have completed their sixteenth year. The art of writing is then taught, and reading and arithmetic of course continued; but the general character of their studies, and the subjects on which their minds are exercised during the period, may be best judged of by the following list of the books used by the pupils:

Ecernal's National Spelling Book.	History of the United States.
Pierpont's National Reader.	Composition and Declamation.
Murray's English Grammar.	Philosophy and Natural History.
Foxe's Progressive Exercises.	Nat. and Experim. Philosophy.
Field's Geography and Atlas.	Elements of General History.
Frost's Exercises in Parsing.	Algebra and Geometry.

A philosophical apparatus is furnished to all these schools, by which natural and experimental philosophy is illustrated; and the Bible is read by each class frequently.

Besides these grammar schools, there is an English High School which was instituted in 1821, for the purpose of furnishing the young men of the city, who are not intended for a collegiate course, but who have enjoyed the usual advantages of the other public schools, with the means of completing a good English education. Pupils may enter this school at the age of twelve, and remain there till eighteen, during which period they receive instruction in the elements of mathematics and natural philosophy, with their application to the sciences and the arts; in grammar, rhetoric, and the

belles lettres; in moral philosophy, in civil history, and in the French language. The teachers must all have had a collegiate education, and be in number as one to every thirty-five pupils. There is an excellent apparatus for philosophical experiments. The pupils to be admitted must bring certificates of intellectual attainments and good moral conduct from their previous masters. The books used are the following:

Worcester's Ancient Geography.
Worcester's General History.
Colburn's or Baily's Algebra.
Legendre's Geometry.
Blair's Rhetoric.
Paley's Moral Philosophy.

Works on Chymistry.
Trigonometry and Astronomy.
Constitution of the United States.
Practice of Linear Drawing.
Paley's Natural Theology.
Logic and Intellectual Philosophy.

The Latin Grammar School is still a degree beyond the English High School. In this the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and scholars are fitted for the University. Mathematics, geography, history, declamation, and English composition are also carefully attended to. Boys may enter this school as early as ten years of age, or as late as fifteen, but they cannot remain longer than five years as pupils. Certificates of qualification and good moral conduct are required, as in the English High School. The books used are the following:

Stoddart's Latin Grammar.
Viri Romæ.
Andrews's Latin Reader.
Dillaway's Mythology.
Dillaway's Roman Antiquities.
Wilson's Sallust.
Cleveland's Greek Antiquities.
Cicero's Select Orations.
Gould's Virgil.
Jacobs's Greek Reader.
Fisk's Greek Exercises.

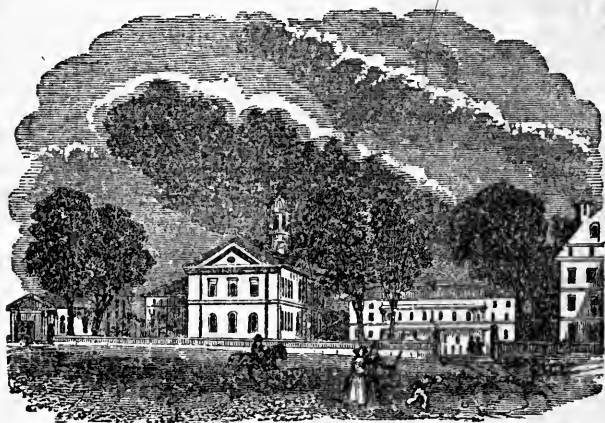
Phædri Fabulæ Expurgatæ.
Cornelius Nepos.
Cæsar's Commentaries.
Excerpta ex Ovidio.
Greek Delectus.
Leverett's Juvenal.
Gould's Horace.
Homer's Iliad.
Greek Testament.
Xenophon's Anabasis.
Paley's Evidences of Christianity.

The pupils are also frequently exercised in arithmetic, geography, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, as well as in translations and composition in the Greek and Latin languages; and no English editions or interpretations, or keys to any of the authors, are permitted in the school. They are examined also in Starling's Catechism of the Constitution of the United States, and in the knowledge of the Old and New Testaments.

The higher branches of education are reserved for Harvard College, or the University of Cambridge, as it is called, which is within four miles of Boston, across one of the bridges leading to Charlestown, and may now be almost regarded as a part of Boston itself, from the facility of access of omnibuses and other public conveyances. This institution was established so long ago as the year 1636, and is named after the Rev. John Harvard, who was the first to make a donation to its funds, of £780 sterling. Since then the donations have been considerable, so that it has now a permanent

fund of \$600,000 in property, and an income of more than \$22,000 per annum, besides the fees of the students and graduates. The college buildings are agreeably situated, and surrounded with lawns and trees. University Hall, which is built of granite, is 140 feet long by 50 broad, and 42 feet high. The separate colleges, of which there are six, are of brick, but substantially built, and furnished with every requisite accommodation, as well as with a library of 30,000 volumes, and a most complete philosophical apparatus for experiments.

The residences of the professors are separate buildings, in the villa style, near the colleges; and the village itself, in which the whole are seated, is extremely pretty.



There are usually about 400 students in the University; and the president, as well as the professors generally, are highly respected for their learning, virtue, and high character as citizens and men.

Attached to the University is a Medical College in Boston, at which lectures are given by the most eminent professors in anatomy and surgery; and not less than 400 students, partly from the University and partly from the country, come up to attend these in the winter. The museum, formed and classified chiefly by Dr. Warren, one of the principal physicians of Boston, and lecturer of the institution, is one of the best I remember for the extent and variety of its anatomical preparations, and the exquisite skill with which some of those in wax are executed. I had the pleasure of visiting it under great advantages, and have rarely been more highly gratified.

I had an opportunity also of attending one of the exhibitions at Cambridge, of which there are three in the year, besides the anniversary, called the "Commencement," which takes place in August; and I was much pleased with the gentlemanly appearance and

manners of the students, as well as with the perfection of their exercises. We dined afterward with the president, Mr. Quincy, the governor of the state, Mr. Everett, the ex-president of the United States, John Quincy Adams, and other friends and official guardians of the institution, and were much delighted with our visit. The number of auditors who attended the exhibition amounted to about 300, among whom the ladies were as numerous as the gentlemen; and the following was the order of the exercises:

"Latin Oration, *De Festis diebus qui nostra in Universitate celebrantur*. English Version, *The Real State of France*. Latin Dialogue, *Procida and Raimond*. Conference, *History, Biography, and Fiction*. Greek Version, *Extract from a Speech of Tiberius Gracchus*. Colloquy, *How far the Right should be controlled by the Expedient*. Latin Version, *Orationis Josephi Story apud Societatem P. B. K. habitæ pars*. Forensic Disputation, *Whether a Want of Reverence be justly chargeable on our Age and Country*. Greek Dialogue, *Eurylochus and Melanthus*. Dissertation, *Public Opinion as a Standard of Right*. Mathematical Exercises, *The Construction of Charts, Rotary Motion derived from the Electro-Magnetic Forces, Properties of the Cycloid, Meteors, Use of Infinitely small Quantities in Mathematical Investigations*. English Oration, *Modern Patriotism*."

I believe that neither Oxford nor Cambridge in Old England would have been ashamed of their own students if they had been the actors, and had acquitted themselves as well as these youths of New-England did on this occasion; and this, perhaps, is as high praise as any English auditor could bestow.

Notwithstanding these ample means of education, from the primary schools to the University, means in which America is surpassed by no nation on the globe excepting only Prussia, there is yet a strong desire on the part of the leading men in society to do more. Indeed, where 5000 children between the ages of four and sixteen, in such a city as Boston, attend no school at all, there must, of course, be ample room for improvement, though this is, perhaps, a smaller number of uneducated children out of a population of 80,000 than any city in Europe, those of Prussia alone excepted, could present. In consequence of this, public meetings are continually held, to awaken public feeling to the importance of using additional means, so as to extend education to *all* children, and to train, by normal schools, the teachers with more care. One of the most recent meetings of this kind was held at Worcester during my stay in Boston. Governor Everett, Daniel Webster, and Mr. John Quincy Adams were among the speakers; and the following short extract from the speech of the last-named gentleman is so good and so characteristic, that I venture to transcribe it.

"The Hon. John Q. Adams said he had noticed the organization of the Board of Education, the reports, and improvements in those reports. He had examined the subject of late, and he thought the movements in this country by the friends of education had been deliberate, and wise, and Christian; and he thought the plan contemplated by the

very important resolution before the meeting could not but find favour with every one who would examine and comprehend it. We see monarchs expending vast sums, establishing normal schools through their realms, and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. *Shall we be outdone by kings?* Shall monarchies steal a march on republics in the patronage of that education on which a republic is based? On this great and glorious cause let us expend freely, yes, *more* freely than on any other. There was one usage, he added, in the ancient republic of Sparta, which now occurred to him, and which filled his mind with this pleasing idea, viz., that these endeavours of ours for the fit education of all our children would be the means of raising up a generation around us which would be superior to ourselves. The usage alluded to was this: the inhabitants of the city on a certain day collected together and marched in procession, dividing themselves into three companies, the old, the middle-aged, and the young. When assembled for the sports and exercises, a dramatic scene was introduced, and the three parties had each a speaker; and Plutarch gives the form of phraseology used in the several addresses on the occasion. The old men speak first; and, addressing those beneath them in age, they say,

‘We have been, in days of old,
Wise and generous, brave and bold.’

Then come the middle-aged, and, casting a triumphant look at their seniors, say to them,

‘That which in days of yore ye were,
We at the present moment are.’

Lastly march forth the children, and, looking bravely upon both companies who had spoken, they shout forth thus:

‘Hereafter at our country’s call,
We promise to surpass you all.’ ”

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Periodical Literature of Boston.—Statistics of the Public Journals.—Quarterly and Monthly Publications.—Newspaper Press.—Partisanship.—Examples of Political Exaggeration.—Opposition or Indifference to Abolitionism.—Morals and Manners turned to Party Account.—Scenes in Boston Theatre and on the Bridges.

THE periodical literature of Boston is more varied and extensive than that of any other city in the Union, though the operations of its publishers are not so large as those of the same class of persons in New-York and Philadelphia. Among the best periodicals may be mentioned the North American Review, published quarterly, and the Christian Examiner, published every two months. There are, however, besides these, four large periodicals, published quarterly, and at intervals of two months; twelve monthly magazines, including a horticultural, an educational, and several religious journals; a medical journal weekly, and several literary and religious newspapers published weekly also. The newspapers include

10 daily, of which 8 are morning and 2 evening papers, 8 semi-weekly and 24 weekly, exclusive of *The Yankee Farmer*, an agricultural paper, and *The Liberator*, an abolition paper; and, upon the average of the whole, the circulation may be estimated at 2500 each, some having a circulation of 5000, and some not more than 1000. This would give an aggregate of 153,000 copies per week for the 10 daily publications, 40,000 per week for 8 semi-weekly papers, and 60,000 per week for the 24 weekly papers, or an aggregate of 253,000 copies per week in a population of 80,000 persons, exclusive of the monthly and quarterly journals; a proportion, it is believed, which exceeds that of any other city in the world.

The quarterly and monthly publications are conducted with great ability, and in a spirit of moderation, fairness, and candour. This praise cannot, however, in justice be bestowed on the greater number of the daily and weekly papers. They partake of all the feebleness and inefficiency of the newspaper press of the country generally, while they are inferior in original intelligence to the papers of New-York, though in the spirit of partisanship they surpass all their contemporaries. Relying chiefly, if not entirely, on their advertisements for support, and these being furnished by persons engaged in the mercantile and trading operations, they can hardly dare offend those on whom they are so dependant by advocating what is unpopular with them. Hence they are almost all Whigs in their politics, and nearly all opposed to the recent law for restraining the retailing of spirituous liquors in quantities of less than 15 gallons, because all the importers, manufacturers, and sellers of this article will have their profits lessened by it. One paper alone out of all the daily press, the *Mercantile Journal*, had the courage to run counter to its contemporaries in this matter, and was severely handled by the rest for so doing. Its reply to these attacks was at once calm, dignified, and unanswerable, because it exposed the vulnerable point of its enemies in a manner of which all men saw the force and applicability. The following is the short paragraph in which they notice the subject:

"The editors of the *Centinel* and *Gazette* think it a remarkable circumstance that the *Mercantile Journal* is the only Whig paper which has yet arrayed itself against the proscriptive measures of the Convention. It may at first appear somewhat remarkable that a wise, a just, and expedient law (the law for restraining the sale of spirits in smaller quantities than 15 gallons, so as to put an end to all retail or dram shops), which, if carried into effect, will tend to promote the happiness and prosperity of the people of this commonwealth to an extent surpassing that of any law ever enacted by our Legislature, should not receive, not only the approval, but the earnest support of the whole newspaper press throughout the state. But we all know the influence which self-interest ordinarily exercises over the human mind: a person is proverbially unwilling to believe that an action which militates against his individual interest can be just, righteous, or expedient; and by ex-

aming the advertising columns of most of the newspapers in this city, a key may be furnished which may solve the enigma, provided no other solution can be found."

Of the spirit of partisanship in which the newspapers are conducted, a hundred proofs might be given; for every paper on both sides furnishes continual evidence of this; but one specimen will suffice. It is taken from the Boston Courier, one of the leading morning papers, of Oct. 31, and is by no means the worst of its kind. It is as follows:

"THE ELECTIONS.—The time is now close at hand when the people of this state are to be called upon to exercise that most precious and important right of freemen, the choice of their rulers and representatives. The coming election puts it in the power of every man to mark his disapprobation or approval of the party who have, for nine years past, ruled over this country, and made it the scene and the subject of the most wanton, reckless, and disastrous experiments ever conceived by human folly or practised by human wickedness. The party who hold the reins of the federal government now call upon the people of the United States to continue them in power. What have the party done to merit such a reward? They have done all these things:

"In the name of Liberty they have tyrannized over the land; oppressed the people; set up a despotic, haughty, arrogant, and overbearing military chieftain, and called upon a nation of freemen to bow the knee to their master.

"In the name of Democracy they have organized a cabal of selfish, avaricious, unprincipled office-holders, who have monopolized the power, influence, and revenues of the nation; proscribed all freedom of thought and action, and driven the obedient slaves in their ranks hither and thither, at the word of command.

"In the name of Reform they have turned all honest men out of office, and filled their places with knaves, profligates, cheats, swindlers, and desperadoes.

"In the name of Retrenchment they have doubled and tripled the national expenses.

"In the name of Equality they have set on foot machinations to perpetuate all rule and dominion in their own hands, and trample under foot the dearest rights of our citizens; they have widened the ordinary distinctions between the different classes of society, and pursued deliberate schemes to make the rich richer and the poor poorer.

"In the name of Government they have violated law, constitution, and equity; stolen the people's money, and squandered it upon their hirelings and adulators.

"In the name of Patriotism they have sought nothing but the elevation to power of a few selfish, greedy, and designing political knaves, and the aggrandizement of their own desperate and unprincipled faction.

"In the name of the People they have vetoed the public will, spurned the people's petitions, the people's wishes, and the people's complaints, and laughed to scorn the people's sufferings. In the name of the people they have abused the nation with more insult and grinding oppression than has been perpetrated in the same time in the most despotic monarchy in Europe.

"If the people of the United States wish for the renewal or the perpetuation of all these indignities, they have only to continue these men in power. They are men who will certainly repeat all their follies and all their iniquities, for they are neither wiser nor more honest than they

were at first. They are too dull to learn anything by experience, and too deeply dipped in corruption and fraud to leave any hope of their repentance. In the miry slough of political profligacy, they have

Stepp'd in so far, that, should they wade no more,
Returning were as tedious as go o'er.

"These are plain facts, stated in plain language; there needs no rhetoric to make them effective; and with these facts in mind, we ask how any man can, with an honest conscience, give his support to the men who have perpetrated, wilfully and deliberately, all these misdeeds, and the party who deliberately sanction them? People of the United States, which do you choose: honest men and an honest Whig government! or Jacksons and Bentons, and Tory corruption, Tory misrule, Tory experiments, and the consummation of Toryism, calamity and disgrace?"

The droll part of all this is, that the extreme Radicals, or the only truly Democratic party in the United States which recognises the will of the majority, and are advocates of universal suffrage, are called "Tories;" and the Conservative or Aristocratical party, who call the people "the rabble," and designate the Democrats as agrarians, levellers, Jacobins, and so on, who are opposed to universal suffrage, and who demand a property qualification for voters, these call themselves "Whigs."

The despotism of the government must be very mild indeed, when such articles as these can be printed in half the newspapers of the Union, and no editor banished, as in India, no newspaper seized and suppressed, as in France, and no criminal information filed by a state attorney-general, as in England. The "despotism" exists wholly in the imaginations of the defeated and disappointed party. Indeed, it is difficult to say what more of liberty they would have than they now enjoy. Each state has its separate sovereignty, and by universal suffrage, or nearly so, all the members of its Upper and Lower House are elected, and its governor chosen. No laws can be made or taxes imposed without their consent; and freedom of the press and trial by jury exist in their greatest vigour; while all opinions on political or religious subjects are as free, and persons and property as perfectly protected, as in any country that ever existed; so that, if the present administration were removed to-morrow, and another planted in its place, not a single additional liberty, civil, political, or religious, could be granted to the people.

Just as idle and as groundless are their alarms about existing distress, and their predictions of inevitable ruin. This cry has been raised so often for party purposes in England, in France, and America, that few thinking people now heed it as anything more than the ravings of a party out of office, which cease the moment they get into power. The agriculture of America is flourishing, its commerce active, its shipping all fully employed, and its manufactures thriving. There is no country in which a larger proportion of wealth is diffused among a similar number of persons. Many

are opulent, all are possessed of competency, and few or none suffer from actual want. Wages in every department are high, food is abundant and cheap. There are no artisans out of employment in large masses, no poor clamouring for parochial relief, and no beggars. The churches are filled with elegantly-dressed people; the theatres and concerts are crowded; the lecture-rooms are filled; the hotels and boarding-houses are thriving; the railroads and steamboats are filled at every trip; benevolent objects are supported by munificent subscriptions; and private parties are thronged with the gay and the fashionable in every quarter. And yet, in the face of all this, the Whig newspapers insist upon it that the nation is hastening on at a rapid rate to ruin, calamity, and disgrace; though, if their party were to come in to-morrow, their note would be changed before a single month were over, and they would then find America to be the freest, happiest, and best-governed country in the world, because their party were at the helm—and they are infallible!

Another remarkable feature of the newspapers of this class is, the indifference, if not approbation, with which they look upon all the attempts made to put down freedom of discussion on the subject of slavery; they do not think this "despotism" any infringement upon liberty, because it relates to another class of their fellow-men. The tyranny of the whites over the blacks they justify or excuse, on the ground of its being a right guaranteed by the Constitution, and, if not just, at least expedient. The despotism of the anti-abolitionists over those who are in favour of emancipation is also applauded by some, justified by others, and excused or winked at by nearly all. But so one-sided and oblique is their vision in all matters of politics and government, that, while they rave at an imaginary despotism of the president and his supporters, which has no existence but in their disordered imaginations, they are perfectly blind to the real despotism exercised by a race boasting to love freedom, and declaring in their Constitution that "all men are born equal," over a race whom they continue, against all remonstrance, example, and appeal, still to keep enslaved. The following paragraph is from the Boston Morning Herald of October 31:

"ANTI-ABOLITION.—The second attempt of the abolition lecturer, named Colvert, to deliver a lecture in Danbury, Connecticut, has ended in smoke. The reverend gentleman concluded it unsafe to venture another trial, according to his previous announcement. His effigy was carted about the streets by the multitude (among which were many persons from the neighbouring towns), and finally burned! A few nights previous, he got possession of the Congregational Church in Bethel, Connecticut, through the management of one of the deacons, named Seth Seelye, although the largest portion of the church were opposed to it. A few women and children attended; the multitude on the outside stoned the building, rang the bell, &c. The majority of the congregation left before he had finished his lecture. Mr. Seelye, having the keys, 'took the responsibility' upon himself to open it to the rev-

erend lecturer, although against the expressed will of the majority of the church members."

Abundant specimens might be offered, to show the manner in which the American press is disposed to turn almost every striking incident to political account, to soften down all frauds and immoralities committed by men of their own party, and to put forth in the most prominent light all similar acts when committed by their opponents. If a bank stops payment, the main object of inquiry with the newspapers is, whether the directors were Whigs or Democrats. If a treasury defaulter runs off with a large sum, it is sure to be attributed to his Whig or Democratic politics; neither of them caring a straw about the immorality of the act, but each being anxious to obtain a party triumph.

While incidents like these are recorded without a comment, and this really deep stain on the morals as well as manners of a nation excites only a moment's attention, matters of minor import obtain a larger share of space and comment. Some of these are such as no English traveller would be forgiven for saying, and it would be imputed to his malice, or envy, or jealousy, if he did so; but, when the Americans speak thus of themselves, it may be well to record it. Here is a paragraph from the *Evening Gazette* of October 27:

"HATS IN THE DRESS CIRCLE.—We shall really be compelled to invite Madame Trollope to pay the country another visit, if our young men do not amend some of their uncouth practices. Among these, one of the most public, and, therefore, most generally displeasing, is the habit of wearing hats in the dress circle of the theatre; and some old men too, we perceive, indulge in the same breach of good manners, for it is no less. The very fact that one part of the house is distinguished from the others by the name 'dress circle,' should advise people that in that part at least they should not demean themselves as if in the streets. No one would think of entering a ballroom in Wellington boots and a wrap-rascal, yet the one offence against etiquette is no more frequent than the other. There is another trick which we would gladly see abolished, that of chewing tobacco in the house. We dare say the partakers of the weed derive great enjoyment therefrom, but it is more than a little selfish in them to put everybody to inconvenience on their account. A neat man not a chewer, or a lady, feels in complete misery when the vicinity of a devotee of the Indian weed is discovered. It is not the smell of the article alone that is offensive, but the fear of cloth and dresses stained and spoiled. Our gallants must look to these things."

As a faithful delineation of one striking feature of the American character—the haste with which everything is despatched—though there is less of this in Boston than in New-York, the following article may be worth transcribing. It is from the *Mercantile Journal* of October 31, and says what no English traveller would venture to say without being described as a libeller. It is this:

"DAILY SCENES ON WARREN BRIDGE.—There is probably no people more industrious than the New-Englanders. They seem to have carefully conned Dr. Franklin's admirable lessons on the value of time.

There are among us no men of leisure ; all are occupied ; and, whatever their particular enjoyments or pleasures may be, they pursue them with an enthusiasm and an earnestness truly astonishing. 'No time must be lost' appears to be the universal maxim ; and for this reason they bolt their food and complain of dyspepsy ; hurry through the streets as if the fate of the world depended on their exertions, or drive like Jehus about the country, as if racing against time, and complain of the dullness of railroad travelling when proceeding at the rate of only twenty miles an hour. When arrived at the end of their journey, all are anxious to be the first to get out of the vehicle ; many shoves are given or received, and many hats or bonnets are fearfully compressed. The same scene is witnessed at the close of the services in a church ; the moment the benediction is pronounced, a rush is made by the male members of the congregation for the door, and a scene of great disorder and confusion ensues. A similar exhibition is witnessed in a lecture-room ; each person is so reluctant to lose only two or three minutes of time, that he presses forward with a perseverance and a disregard of obstacles which would better become a better cause.

"But perhaps the best illustration of the value which the Yankees attach to time may be witnessed in passing one of the large bridges which connect Boston with the adjacent country when the draw is about to be raised. We have often witnessed the bustle incident to such an occasion on Warren Bridge, the great thoroughfare to Charlestown, and have derived no little amusement therefrom. When preparations for raising the draw, that a vessel may pass through, are seen from afar, anxiety and alarm are strongly depicted on every countenance, for each one fears that he may be left on the wrong side of the draw, and thus be compelled to sacrifice from three to five minutes of his valuable time, when a scrub-race commences among the pedestrians, and feats of agility are practised which are truly wonderful to behold. A looker on, who was not in the secret, would suppose that a sudden mania, a simultaneous and instinctive impulse to take the most violent muscular exercise, was felt by every individual on the bridge, without regard to age, sex, or occupation. The youth of sixteen is seen straining every muscle, apparently, to keep pace with some grave old gentleman of threescore years and ten, and is not unfrequently beaten in the race ; blooming damsels and sage matrons, the finical dandy and the ragged loafer, the thoughtless buffoon and the sedate clergyman, all seem to be actuated by the same emulative spirit, and press forward with a zeal and activity which excites the marvel of the by-stander, who does not feel inclined to contest the prize. One would think that, like Burns's Tam O'Shanter, they deemed that some fierce and malignant spirit was in full pursuit, and that not merely five minutes of time, but health, fame, happiness, ay, life itself, depended on reaching the keystone of the bridge with all possible despatch."

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Proportions of Churches to each Sect.—Historical Peculiarities.—Unitarians, Presbyterians, Catholics, Universalists, Old South Church.—King's Chapel.—Ancient Peal of Bells.—Revolutionsry Sermons.—First Sunday-school.—Roman Catholic Worshipers.—Convents.—Nunneries.—Influence on Pupils.—Bethel Church for Seamen.—Preaching of Father Taylor.—Chapel exclusively for Children.—Auxiliaries of Education and Industry.—Chapel for the free Use of the Poor.—Chapel for religious and benevolent Meetings.—Temperance Hotel.—Churches.—Clergy.—Services.—Music and Singing.

THE churches of Boston are very numerous, and the changes that have taken place in the religious opinions of the clergy and their congregations are among the most remarkable that are to be found in any part of the United States. From the high degree of respect in which the character and office of a minister of religion is held here, Boston has been called the "paradise of clergymen;" and from the number, wealth, and influence of the Unitarian preachers and hearers here, it has been also called "the headquarters of Unitarianism." The statistics of the several churches, sects, and worshippers, carefully compiled from the most authentic sources within reach, may be interesting to many and instructive to a few, and therefore they are here presented. The number of places of worship now in regular and occasional use in Boston are about 70, of which 60 are constantly filled, and ten occasionally, in a population of 80,000 persons, making nearly one to every 1000 of its inhabitants. Their relative proportions will be seen in the following list of the 60 that are constantly occupied:

Unitarians	14	Universalists	6
Presbyterians	13	Roman Catholics	4
Baptists	8	Swedenborgians	1
Methodists	7	Quakers	1
Episcopalian	6		

Of the Unitarian churches, the greater number were originally either Presbyterian or Episcopalian, and have since been occupied by Unitarian ministers. The change in opinion took place in many instances while the clergymen filling the Episcopalian and Presbyterian pulpits were preaching what was considered orthodox doctrines, though there was great caution used on the manifestation of the change, until a period arrived which was thought favourable to its development, and then it is said that there was only one church of importance in all Boston, the Old South, which appeared not to partake of the change.

At that period, now some fifty years ago, Unitarianism might be said to be the religion of the majority in Boston; but it has remained nearly stationary since then, while other sects have in-

creased in numbers, so as to alter the balance materially. Even now, however, the Unitarians have a greater number of churches than any other single sect; their preachers are more eminent for learning and eloquence, and their congregations embrace nearly all the most wealthy and influential families of the city, while the University of Cambridge is also in their hands, nearly all the professors there being Unitarians in their opinions.

Under the head of Presbyterians are classed all the Congregational churches that are Trinitarian and Calvinistic in opinion, and are neither Episcopalians, Baptists, nor Methodists; but these, though called Presbyterians, are not subject to any General Assembly, as in Scotland.

The Episcopalians follow the ritual of the Church of England, with such alterations in the service as the difference of country and government requires; and in respect to the opulence and station of their adherents, they come next to the Unitarians.

The Roman Catholics are very numerous, there being not less than 10,000 members of that church, or one eighth of the whole population in Boston.

The Universalists are also numerous, and are yearly increasing. The Swedenborgians are few in number; but the Quakers have hardly enough to form even a small congregation, and have only occasional meetings at irregular intervals of time. Of Jews, none appear to reside here; at least no place of worship exists for the exercise of their religious services.

All are conducted on the voluntary system, without the least aid, either in patronage or pay, from the state; and in no city in the world are the clergy better provided for, the churches more commodious and comfortable, the congregations more numerous, or the harmony and friendly feeling between the different sects more remarkable than here.

The largest of all the churches is the Old South Church, Presbyterian, built in 1669, which stands in the heart of the city, and is used for religious and benevolent anniversary meetings, as it is supposed capable of accommodating 3000 persons. During the Revolutionary war, the British dragoons stationed here in 1775 entirely destroyed the interior of it, by removing all the pews, pulpit, and altar, and converting it into a riding-school!

King's Chapel, which was built in 1686, was, before the Revolution, used for the governor and other public authorities, it being then an Episcopalian Church. It is now Unitarian, but still uses the Church of England Liturgy, with slight variations. The old English governor's pew, which was higher and more ornamented than the rest, has been recently removed, yet it still retains the name of King's Chapel, by which it is generally known. This is the more remarkable when it is remembered that, in the fever of the Revolution, the names of King-street, Queen-street, Prince-

street, and so on, were changed for names more agreeable to republican ears. King's Chapel, however, having outlived these times, will most probably retain its name as long as the building itself shall endure.

Brattle-street Church, at present Unitarian, built in 1699, originated in the following manner. It was not usual, in the early part of the history of Boston, for the Scriptures to be read in any of the churches of the Puritans, as they regarded that as a relic of the Old Church of England service, which they desired to avoid; and the suffrage for electing a minister was confined to the communicants, who were strictly examined before they were admitted to the sacrament. A number of persons then united to form a church in which the Scriptures should be read at the minister's discretion, in which all adults who had been baptized and contributed to the funds of the church should have a vote in the election of its minister, and in which all persons who applied should be admitted to the communion "without relation of their experience."

Old John Hancock, the Revolutionary patriot of 1775, whose signature is one of the most prominent among the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and who was specially excluded from the amnesty offered by the British to all traitors who should repent, was a liberal benefactor to this church, and his name was engraved on one of the corner-stones of the building in large letters by some of his admirers. The hatred, however, borne to this name by the English was such, that it was defaced by the British soldiery, who occupied it as a barrack for the infantry, while the Old South Church was occupied as a riding-school for the cavalry. The stone still remains, with the mutilated yet honoured name of "John Hancock" sufficiently legible to be traced; and on a slab in another part of the exterior the name is again inscribed at full, so that this attempt to obliterate an honoured name has, like many others, served only to fix it deeper in the hearts of the people. A shot which was fired from the American batteries at Cambridge struck the church wall, and, being nearly spent, it lodged in the brickwork for a few minutes, and then fell on the ground. It was picked up and carefully preserved; and when the British were compelled to evacuate the town and permit the victorious rebels to march into it, the ball was placed in the hollow it had made, securely fastened there, about half buried in the wall and half projecting from it, where it still remains as a memento of the struggles by which the people of that day won their independence.

Christ Church, Episcopalian, built in 1722, is the only church in Boston that was furnished with a peal of bells, which used to chime merrily for several nights before Christmas, and to ring out the old year and ring in the new, after the fashion of "merry England." This ancient practice has long since been discontinued. On each of these bells, eight in number, is a separate inscription, among

which are the following : On the third bell, " We are the first ring of bells cast for the British empire in North America, 1744 : " fourth bell, " God preserve the Church of England : " seventh bell, " Since generosity opened our mouths, our tongues shall ring aloud its praise. " The doctrines of the Church of England are here preached with a more rigid adherence to the thirty-nine articles of the mother-church than in any other pulpit of the city.

The handsomest steeple in Boston is that of the Federal-street Church, where the celebrated Dr. Channing, the Unitarian preacher, officiates ; though the tower of the Old South, of Park-street, and several others, are lofty and imposing.

West Church, built in 1737, was the one in which the celebrated Dr. Mayhew preached at the time of the Revolution, his sermons there being supposed to have had as great an effect in producing resistance to the oppressions of the British as the speeches of Otis and the other popular orators of the day. He died only a few weeks after delivering in this building his memorable discourse on the repeal of the Stamp Act. It is the first church in Boston that adopted the practice of having a Sunday-school attached to it. This was commenced for the first time in 1812 ; and so extensively has the example been followed, that there is now scarcely a church in the city that has not its special Sabbath-school. The whole number of pupils at these schools exceed 5000, and the teachers are not, as in England, exclusively from the middle ranks in society ; but here the sons and daughters of the most opulent merchants, and the most distinguished families in the state, take an active personal share in the business of teaching, and may be found at their post in the Sabbath-schools with as much regularity as in their places of worship. This church is one of the few in Boston which stands apart from all sects. Its members adopt no other name than that of " Christians. " It professes no particular creed, but acknowledges the Scriptures, in the light in which each devout member of the Church may regard it, as the only rule of faith and practice.

The Catholic communicants are said to be at present the most numerous of all the sects in Boston, as they exceed 10,000 in the city alone, and are every year increasing, as, indeed, they appear to be in every part of America, chiefly by the constant influx of Catholic emigrants of various nations, but especially from Ireland. A convent of Ursuline nuns also exists in Boston. This was formed originally of four nuns, who were invited here by Bishop Cheverus in 1820, and maintained by a provision made for them by the will of a Catholic gentleman named Thayer. They were employed for the first six years in the instruction of females ; and having by that time increased their numbers, they removed to Charlestown, one of the suburbs of Boston, just across one of the bridges, and there established the Ursuline Community on Mount Benedict. This

was in 1826, and they continued there until 1834, when the convent was destroyed by an intolerant mob of incendiaries, and the nuns and their inmates obliged to save themselves by flight.

The convent has never since been rebuilt at Charlestown, but the nuns now inhabit a large house near Pearl-street, in Boston, and still continue the occupation of teaching female children. By this practice there is no doubt that they make many converts to their faith, and add even to their own numbers as nuns. While at Washington we heard, from good authority, many instances of young Protestant females becoming so attached to their teachers in the Catholic seminary at Georgetown as to be induced to take the veil; instances have happened in Boston, also, where Protestant young ladies instructed by the nuns have ended in becoming Catholics, and all efforts to recover them have been ineffectual.

The Mariner's Church is under the care of the Reverend Father Taylor, as he is generally called, and is chiefly, though not exclusively, frequented by seamen and their families. Mr. Taylor was himself for many years a mariner, and subsequently became a preacher of the Methodist connexion; but his peculiar talent for addressing seamen, and his long experience of their habits and modes of thought and feeling, suggested the idea of his being set apart and consecrated to their ministry. And most fortunate was the selection. I had the pleasure not only to hear, but to make the acquaintance of this remarkable and valuable minister in Boston; and I can truly say that I know of no one better adapted to the sphere he fills than Father Taylor.

His influence over his maritime flock is greater than that of any other minister that could be chosen for the purpose; for they not only reverence his piety, but they appear really to love him as children would a father. His preaching has all the earnestness of one whose whole soul is concentrated in the one object for which his tongue is pleading; and his eloquence, though peculiar, is characterized by that simplicity and frankness which rivets the attention and penetrates the heart; and through his indefatigable efforts the seamen of Boston generally are a more sober, orderly, moral, and religious class of men than those, perhaps, of any other port in the world.

The Warren-street Chapel is an excellent institution, erected chiefly for the accommodation of children, and superintended by a society of gentlemen. At the ringing of the first bell on the Sabbath the children attend here at the Sunday-school; and at the close of their studies they repair to the chapel to hear discourses suited to their age and comprehension, as the sermons preached generally to adults are above the measure of their understanding. There are free seats, however, for all adults who desire to be present. The children are visited during the week at their own homes, and they meet occasionally, with their teachers, to take a walk

into the country, or to pass a few hours in innocent recreation at the Chapel. A sewing-school is provided on Saturday afternoons, and there are two evening schools for boys, and two afternoon schools for girls each week, intended for those who may be in want of a common English education, and not in a situation to attend the other schools of the city. Instruction is also given in vocal music and linear drawing.

Besides the library attached to the Sunday-school, a collection has been formed of 2000 volumes, as the nucleus of a future free library and reading-room. A cabinet of natural history is also in progress of formation, and a garden is attached to the building. Besides this, a course of lectures is given during each winter, and two concerts during the season; and the publication of occasional works by the committee, added to the voluntary contributions of the community, sustain the expense of all this; while a series of tracts are also published for the use of the children attending the Chapel, and for such other children as they may be disposed to send them to for perusal. The property is held by trustees for the proprietors, and the services of the committee and of many of the teachers are gratuitous. No particular sectarian doctrines are professed or expounded, but the instruction given is such as all good Christians would agree in and approve; and the amount of good done by the institution is incalculable.

The Pitts-street Chapel was erected in 1826, by a number of gentlemen forming an "Association for Religious Improvement," the object being to obtain the services of Christian ministers of every denomination in turn, to give free religious instruction to the poor. The sum of 16,000 dollars was raised for this purpose, and a commodious chapel built, in which religious services are performed gratuitously by ministers of all the Christian denominations, and it is always well attended. Attached to it are two rooms for a Sunday-school and a parish library. The Howard Sunday-school held in this place has nearly 400 scholars who regularly attend it, so that both instruction and religious worship are here obtained and enjoyed by a large portion of the community "without money and without price."

The Marlborough Chapel is another capacious and beautiful edifice, recently erected in the great thoroughfare of Washington-street, on the model of the Broadway Tabernacle in New-York, and, like it, a "free church," in which service is performed every Sabbath, open to all, without cost, as the pews are not the property of any individuals, nor is any rent paid for them. The expenses of the chapel are defrayed by the rental of the building for public meetings, for which it is admirably adapted; and, like our Exeter Hall in London, it is used for public assemblies, anniversaries, and miscellaneous meetings, connected chiefly with moral, philanthropic, and benevolent objects.

Attached to this is a Temperance Hotel, which is considered one of the most comfortable and best regulated establishments of the kind in America, it being conducted on the principle of total abstinence from all intoxicating drinks, so that neither wine, beer, nor spirits are supplied in it, and tobacco is equally excluded. The cleanliness and purity of such a house, compared with the atmosphere of hotels in general, may easily be conceived. It is well frequented by travellers and visitors of the first respectability; and the Marlborough Chapel is also in constant use for meetings connected with temperance, slave-emancipation, objects of general benevolence and peace, and all that harmonizes with sound morality and religion.

The churches of Boston, like those of every other city or town that we had yet visited in America, are remarkable for the uniform combination of external and internal elegance, ample space, great comfort, perfect repair, good means of warmth and ventilation, and the total absence of anything like neglect or insufficiency of funds or materials. In all of them the music and singing is much better than in the churches and chapels of England, excepting only the cathedral and collegiate choirs. The ministers, too, as a body, are better educated, more competent, and stand higher in the general estimation of their followers. Their sermons are almost uniformly written (excepting among the Methodists and a few of the Baptists), and are prepared with great care. There is an absence generally of that zeal and fervour of eloquence which extemporaneous preaching can perhaps alone produce, but there is a freedom also from many of the imperfections almost inseparable from unstudied extemporaneous effusions. In most of the churches there are three services in the day; in all there are two; and, whatever may be the state of the weather, the churches are almost always filled.

CHAPTER XXXV.

Benevolent Societies.—General Hospital.—Institution for the Education of the Blind.—Humane Society and Howard Benevolent Society.—Asylum for indigent Boys, and Farm-schools.—Institutions for Orphans and Widows.—Boston Port Society.—Sailor's Home.—Bethel Union, for protecting Sailor's Rights.—British and Irish charitable Societies.—Cultivation of Music.—Lyceums, Libraries, and Debating Clubs.—Society for promoting Arts and Manufactures.—Massachusetts Peace Society.—Sabbath-school, Bible, and Missionary Associations.—Religious Statistics of America and Scotland.

THE benevolent societies of Boston are almost as numerous as the churches, and all are freely and amply sustained. The religion of America shows itself in the erection and support of institu-

tions for the great purposes of humanity in a more powerful manner than that of any other country in the world, and speaks volumes in favour of the voluntary system. It may be well first to present a list of them, and then add some descriptions of such as require it:

Massachusetts General Hospital.	Boston Dispensary.
Asylum for the Insane.	Humane Society.
Marine Hospital.	Charitable Fire Society.
Quarantine Hospital.	Howard Benevolent Society.
Lying-in Hospital.	Charitable Mechanics' Associat.
Institution for the Blind.	Asylum for Indigent Boys.
Eye and Ear Infirmary.	Penitent Female Refuge.
Female Orphan Asylum.	Boston Seaman's Society.
Children's Friend Society.	Scot's Charitable Society.
Boston Port Society.	Boston Female Society.
British Charitable Society.	Young Men's Benevolent Society.
Charitable Irish Society.	Female Philanthropic Society.
Charitable Congregational Soc.	Fatherless and Widow's Society.
Massachusetts Charitable Soc.	Female Samaritan Society.
Episcopal Charitable Society.	

All these institutions are for works of pure benevolence; to afford relief to sufferers, of whatever class or nation, and to do it freely, without cost to those who are relieved. They are all excellent of their kind, and are all liberally supported and ably administered by their respective directors. The General Hospital is inferior to none in the country for its size, accommodation, air, food, cleanliness, and medical skill, in all of which it equals the Pennsylvania Hospital in Philadelphia, and higher praise cannot be bestowed on it than this. The Asylum for the Insane is a noble building at a short distance from the city, in a beautiful as well as healthy situation; and everything about it reminded us, during our visit to its various wards, and conversing with its inmates, of the splendid Hospital of Bloomingdale in New-York, and anything more perfect than that, of its kind, it is really difficult to imagine.

At the Institution for the Blind we witnessed a most gratifying exhibition of the progress of the pupils, previous to their breaking up for their short vacation. Their proficiency in almost every branch in which they were examined was astonishing: in history, geography, mathematics, moral philosophy, logic, languages, but, above all, in vocal and instrumental music. We were accompanied in this visit by the accomplished Madame Caradori Allan, who, at the request of the examiners, proposed to the blind pupils some questions on the theory of music, formation of chords, resolutions of keys, modulation, &c., and their answers both surprised and delighted her. In return for the pleasure she enjoyed at their hands, she kindly played and sang to them two or three delicious airs, and the children were enraptured. I took the opportunity also, on my part, to extend to the whole number of teachers and pupils a free admission to my two courses of lectures on Egypt and Palestine; and I had the satisfaction to find, by subsequent exam-

ination of them, that scarcely a word was lost by them, and that their memories had retained the most important points of all the lectures of the course. The gentleman who conducts this establishment is Dr. Howe, a genuine philanthropist, and so fitted by skill, gentleness, generosity, and enthusiasm for the task, that the globe might be ransacked before a better could be found. His pupils venerate him as a master, and love him as a friend; and his assistants, being persons of his own choice, are all, more or less, mirrors that reflect, to a great extent, his own peculiar excellences.

The Boston Humane Society is for the careful treatment and recovery of persons who are wounded, or whose lives are endangered by injuries received in any manner whatever, and the Charitable Fire Society directs its attention to the care of those unhappy individuals who are burned out of their homes, and thrown, as they often are, destitute on the world, as well as to the reward of those who discover the best modes for extinguishing fires, or who prevent them from becoming destructive by their vigilance and courage in the hour of need. By the operations of these two societies many valuable lives are saved, much property is also secured from destruction, and a great deal of personal suffering alleviated.

The Howard Benevolent Society occupies itself in searching out and ministering to the wants of the sick and infirm, more especially of that class of their fellow-citizens who, not being connected with any of the religious societies, are in no way benefited by the provisions made in most of them for the relief of their poor. The Asylum for Indigent Boys takes the destitute of this class, and especially orphans, under its care, and brings them up to the knowledge of some art or trade by which they may obtain an honest livelihood; and when they have attained a certain age, they are apprenticed out to complete their preparation for making their own way through the world.

The Farm School has been recently added to this institution, seated on one of the small islands of the Bay of Boston, called Thomson's Island, so that agricultural occupation is furnished to many, and the most satisfactory results are produced. In addition to these two, the Boston Children's Friend Society pursues an equally benevolent though somewhat different object, which is to rescue from want and degradation poor children whose parents, from extreme poverty, indolence, or intemperance, so entirely neglect them as to render their situation pitiable. It also takes care of children, to make their parents the better able to work for their own maintenance. The published report on the state of this institution says, its internal arrangements and the management of the children are such as to make it like a well-regulated family of brothers and sisters; they are provided with decent and comfortable clothing, with wholesome and sufficient food, and comfortable lodging, as well as medical attendance when needed; and they

are instructed in all the branches of learning taught in the common schools.

The Female Orphan Asylum is devoted to the care and protection of female orphans and destitute female children; and the Female Philanthropic Society and Female Samaritan Society extend their operations towards benefiting the distressed of adult age among their own sex; while the Female Fatherless and Widow's Society, embracing both, extends its aid to all who come within either of the classes named.

The Boston Port Society and the Boston Seaman's Society take care of the interests of the maritime class, and a vast amount of good is done by their exertions. A boarding-house, called "The Sailor's Home," has been fitted up for the reception of the crews of ships as they arrive from long voyages, in which ample accommodation and comfortable board is provided at the bare cost of the materials used; good beds, an excellent table, a general sitting-room, a library and reading-room, medical attendance, and every domestic enjoyment being provided at the moderate rate of three dollars, or about twelve shillings sterling, per week. The seamen's clothes are taken care of, and repaired and put in order for the next voyage; their wages secured in a savings' bank, and the interest drawn as required; and the most friendly advice is given to them by the superintendent of the establishment, himself for many years a sea-captain, and thoroughly competent to treat them as brothers and friends. The house forms in itself a temperance hotel, as no intoxicating drinks are either sold or permitted to be brought into it, or used by any of the inmates.

A nautical school is attached to this institution, in which young seamen are instructed in writing, arithmetic, and practical navigation. A Seaman's Aid Society also belongs to it; and the object of this branch is to furnish to seamen the best description of clothes used by them at mere cost of materials and labour, as well as to employ in the making of them the wives and daughters of seamen, who receive adequate wages instead of the miserable pay they get from the usual venders of clothing; and, besides good wages, the young girls receive a gratuitous education also.

In addition to all these is another co-operating society, called the Bethel Union, composed chiefly of the former captains and officers of ships, who constitute a standing committee from their own number to hear cases of complaint on the part of seamen, of injustice or harsh treatment from their commanders; to adjust, if it be possible, without recourse to expensive litigation, such disputes as may have arisen between masters and owners of ships and the crews they employ; or, if this be found impracticable, then to protect the seamen's rights, and procure for them the redress they need at the expense of the society's funds.

While all these institutions extend their protection and benevo-

lence chiefly, though not exclusively, towards the native citizens of the United States, the British and the Irish Charitable Societies take special care of their respective countrymen. The following statement of the origin, object, and operation of these societies cannot fail to be read with interest by every Briton, as well as by all who love their country, and care for their countrymen, to whatever nation they may belong.

A few Englishmen, mostly strangers to each other, but influenced by similar feelings of compassion for their unfortunate countrymen in distress, established the British Charitable Society in 1816. Its avowed object was to receive on their arrival, and to advise as to their best mode of future proceeding, all the emigrants who might reach this country from the British Islands, and to assist those who, from disappointment in their expectations, failure in their enterprise, sickness, or poverty, might wish to return to their native land.

By the aid of this society it is ascertained that nearly 1500 distressed British subjects have been relieved, and many of them raised from absolute destitution to comfort in this country, and others returned to their homes. There are about 200 members belonging to this society, by payment of donations and annual subscriptions: and the trustees, who are appointed to examine the cases referred to them, are always provided with sufficient funds to relieve those whose cases and characters are such as to give them a fair claim to assistance.

Such are the benevolent institutions, of which I have given only a brief and imperfect sketch, for the history and operations of each would furnish materials for a large volume, and their statistics occupy an equal space. But I shall have said enough, at least, to establish the just claim of Boston to rank among the foremost in the list of those cities of the world whose true glory is to be seen, not in their gorgeous palaces or sumptuous mansions; not in their costly banquets or crowded theatres; not in their brilliant equipages or warlike trophies, but in the brighter and more enduring lustre of benevolent institutions for the relief of suffering humanity, and the administration of comfort and consolation to the dejected poor.

To this catalogue, honourable as it is to the character of the people of Boston, should in justice be added those also which, though not within the class of charitable or humane associations, are yet promotive of benevolent and important objects, and among these are the following: The American Education Society, for the promotion, improvement, and extension of the best plans of Education in every branch of useful learning; the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; the Boston Society for the Moral and Religious instruction of the Poor; the Boston Mechanics' Institution; the New-England Society for the promotion of Manufactures and the Mechanical Arts; the Young Men's Society for the propagation of Literature and Science; the Massachusetts Lyceum;

the Mechanics' Lyceum; the Social Lyceum; the American Tract Society; the Boston Lyceum; the Boston Young Men's Society; the Prison Discipline Society; the Boston Debating Society; the Franklin Debating Society; the Boston Academy of Music; the Handel and Haydn Society; the Society for the Suppression of Intemperance; the Massachusetts Peace Society; the Massachusetts Sabbath-school Union; several Bible and Missionary Societies, for the promotion of religion at home and abroad.

When it is considered that all these institutions for the support of religion, the exercise of benevolence, and the diffusion of knowledge, are sustained purely and entirely upon the voluntary principle, it is impossible not to be struck with its superior efficacy, as compared with the fruits of any system of compulsory support, especially for religion, in any country whatever. The statistics on the subject of population, churches, ministers, and communicants, so carefully compiled and clearly arranged by Drs. Reed and Matheson, in their recent work, giving the result of their mission as a deputation to the American churches from the Congregational Union of England and Wales, is so decisive of the superiority of the voluntary principle, that they deserve to be repeated in every possible way; and from these I select the following statements, as peculiarly worthy of notice, and as having borne the test of very careful and repeated examination:

States.	Population.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
Massachusetts	610,014	600	704	73,264
New-York	1,913,508	1800	1750	184,583
Pennsylvania	1,347,672	1829	1133	180,205
Tennessee	684,000	630	458	60,000
Ohio	937,000	802	841	76,460
Indiana	341,000	440	340	34,806

The first three of these states are among the earliest settled, and best supplied with the means of religious instruction in America; and Scotland is believed to be the portion of Great Britain best provided with churches and ministers in proportion to her population. The comparison of these with each other will therefore be the fairest test of the effect of the two systems.

Countries.	Population.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
3 Atlantic states	3,871,194	4229	3587	438,052
All Scotland	2,365,807	1804	1765	Uncertain.
3 interior states	1,862,000	1872	1639	171,266

The result of this comparison shows that, while in the three Atlantic states of America there is one church for every 917 persons; in Scotland there is only one church for every 1312 persons; and while in America there is one minister for every 1082 persons, in Scotland there is only one minister for every 1346 persons.

If a comparison be made between the three interior states—though these have been so much more recently peopled that they are yet in their infancy—and Scotland, it will still be advantageous to this country; for while in Scotland there is one church

for every 1312 persons, in the three interior states of America there is one church to every 995 persons; and while in Scotland there is one minister to every 1346, in these states there is one to every 1135 of the population; and this, too, notwithstanding the manner in which the population is scattered over nearly three times the surface of Scotland; Tennessee being still in a state of forest and recently-cleared plantations and fields; Ohio covering a surface of 40,000 square miles, nearly equal in area to England exclusive of Wales; and Indiana scarcely yet emerged from the very first stage of settlement and civilization.

The most striking light of all, however, in which this question can be put, is to take the whole of the ten states which have been last added to the Union, and are, consequently, most recently peopled and organized; namely, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri, Louisiana, and Florida. These states cover an area of 480,670 square miles, and are about *nine* times the size of England and Wales; and, according to the latest and most authentic returns, the statistics of their religious establishments are as follows:

Countries.	Population.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
Ten newest States	3,641,000	3701	2690	286,560
Scotland	2,365,807	1804	1765	Uncertain.

The result of this comparison gives to these states one church to every 984 persons, while in Scotland there is only one to every 1312; and it gives to these states one minister to every 1353 persons, while in Scotland there is one to every 1346. When it is taken into consideration that Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee, and Aberdeen concentrate, in their respective circles, a larger population than either of these ten states named, in neither of which is there any town of the size of those mentioned, this comparison is even still more favourable to the new than to the older states, with all those great advantages by which time has contributed to surround them.

A comparison of some of the cities of the three countries, England, Scotland, and the United States, may appropriately complete this examination; and they shall be placed in juxtaposition, for the greater ease of seeing their differences:

Cities.	Population.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
Liverpool	210,000	57	57	18,000
New-York	280,000	132	142	31,000
Edinburgh	150,000	65	70	Uncertain.
Philadelphia	200,000	93	137	Uncertain.
Glasgow	220,000	74	76	Uncertain.
Boston	80,000	70	80	Uncertain.
Nottingham	50,000	23	23	4864
Cincinnati	30,000	24	22	8555

The contrast between each of these cities, taken in pairs, is most striking, but in none is it more striking than in the last two, in which it is seen that Cincinnati, a city not yet fifty years old, and

the site of which was a dense forest in the memory of many of its inhabitants, has now, with little more than half the population of Nottingham, as many ministers and churches, and nearly twice the number of communicants, that is possessed by this opulent and long-established manufacturing town of England.

The aggregate of all the states in the Union gives the following results:

Population . . .	13,000,000	Churches	12,580
Communicants . .	1,550,890	Ministers	11,450

making about one in nine of the whole population in a state of communion with some church; and by this is not meant mere attendance on worship, however regular, but strict membership, by partaking of the most solemn ordinances of religion, and belonging by the strictest union to the body constituting the church. It gives, also, about one church and one minister to every 1000 of the population, both of which results are undoubtedly much higher than that of any other country with which America can be compared.

There is only one other comparison necessary as the fit and becoming accompaniment to this, which is the proportion of persons out of the whole population receiving education at schools. In the United States it is one in five; in Scotland one in ten; in England one in twelve; in Wales one in twenty; and in France there are 4,000,000 of children who receive no instruction whatever, and nearly half the population are unable to read or write, though in America there are very few native-born inhabitants of either sex who are not able to do both.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

The Municipal Government of the City of Boston.—Police Establishment.—Probate and Register Office.—Revenue and Expenditure.—Theatres.—Museums.

THE municipal government of Boston is vested in a mayor, eight aldermen, and 48 common-councilmen—four for each of the 12 wards into which the city is divided—12 overseers of the poor, and 12 school-committeemen. The charter incorporating Boston as a city is of comparatively recent date, namely, Feb. 23, 1822; and on this charter its present municipal government is founded. The Common Council, composing the Lower House, are elected by the wards, four for each; the aldermen and the mayor, composing the Upper House, are elected by all the citizens generally. Each of these have a negative in the proceedings of the other, so that it is only when the majority of both are agreed that any city ordi-

nance can have the force of law. The mayor's salary is 2500 dollars a year, but the aldermen and common-councilmen serve gratuitously. The meetings of both houses are held in the City Hall, and nothing can surpass the combination of comfort and convenience in the arrangement of the rooms for this purpose. The mayor attends at his office daily from nine till two; the sittings of the Court of Aldermen are held twice a week, and that of the Common-councilmen once a week, in the evenings. Besides the authority of regulating all the business of the city, which is vested in the municipal government, the mayor, aldermen, and common-councilmen, in their joint capacity, have the power of determining annually how many representatives the city of Boston shall send to the State Legislature, and this varies from year to year, having been sometimes more than 60, and at others less than 40.

The city clerk, appointed by the mayor, has a salary of 1400 dollars a year, and, besides his ordinary duties, he is bound to publish the banns of all marriages at the First Church, in Chauncey Place, once a week, to grant certificates of such publication, and to receive and pay into the city treasury the fee for all such banns, which is 75 cents, or about three shillings sterling. The city and county treasurer has 3000 dollars a year, but gives bonds to the amount of 60,000 for the faithful performance of his duty.

The city marshal and his assistant receive jointly 1500 dollars a year. It is their duty to superintend the police and the health of the town, for which purpose they are bound to go personally through every street and lane at least once a week, to see all nuisances removed and the health regulations enforced. To assist them in the performance of this duty, a book is kept open at the City Hall, in which any citizen may enter what he deems a nuisance, or suggest what he thinks would be an improvement, which is sure to be brought before the marshal's notice.

There is, besides these, a superintendent of common sewers and drains, who attends exclusively to this department, at a salary of 1000 dollars a year; a superintendent of streets, who has charge of everything relating to the scavengers' department, at a salary of 1000 dollars a year; and a superintendent of burial-grounds, to whom everything connected with interments and the preservation of the graves and vaults is confided, at a salary of 1000 dollars a year. A city physician is also appointed, whose duty it is to superintend the quarantine of vessels arriving from sickly stations abroad, and to provide against the spread of contagious diseases on shore. He attends the health-office in the City Hall once a week, to vaccinate gratuitously all children brought to him, and grant certificates of such vaccination, without which no child is allowed to enter any of the public schools.

Three justices of police, at salaries of 1500 dollars each, with one clerk at 1400 dollars, and another at 800 dollars per annum,

conduct the business of the Police Court, and have at their disposal a captain of the watch, at 800 dollars per annum, who superintends a night-patrol from 10 o'clock till daylight, and 25 constables for day-duty only. The judge of the Municipal Court, at a salary of 1400 dollars a year, presides over this court, in which are tried all persons indicted by the grand jury of the county of Suffolk, in which Boston is placed, for offences not punishable with death; and one of the justices of the Police Court presides there over trials of civil causes not involving a larger sum than 20 dollars in dispute.

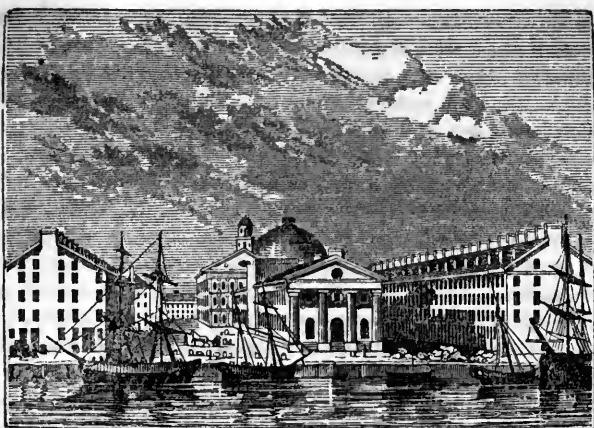
There is also a Probate-office for wills, in which are preserved the most perfect records of the genealogy of nearly all the families descended from the first pilgrim settlers of the country, and a Register-office for deeds; with all the requisite establishments of legal and financial officers, in the city solicitor, city auditor, assessors, &c., so that the municipal government may be said to be very complete, having every useful and no superfluous offices; all its members well paid, but none extravagantly rewarded, and their duties, consequently, well performed.

The annual revenue of the city for the year ending in April, 1838, was 560,000 dollars, arising chiefly from rents of lands, leases of wharves, markets, &c., belonging to the corporation, of which one wharf alone lets at 10,000 dollars a year. The purposes to which this revenue is applied embrace, among others, the following:

	Dollars.
Salaries of the teachers in the Public Schools	85,000
Repairs, fuel, and contingent expenses of ditto	10,000
Land and buildings for Primary Schools	12,500
Paving and repairs of Streets	40,000
Widening and extending Streets	50,000
Support of the City Watch	45,000
Support of the Fire Department	25,000
Internal and external Health Department	30,000
Support of the Poor and House of Industry	20,000
Courts, Jails, and House of Correction	30,000

The markets of Boston are excellent, and well provided with every requisite of animal and vegetable food, as well as fruits in great variety, in their respective seasons. The most prominent of the public markets is that running from Faneuil Hall to the sea, called Quincy Market. Its length is 530 feet, and its breadth 65. The ground floor is devoted to the market, and above it are four ranges of stores, with granite fronts to each street, one of these streets being 65 feet; and the other 102 feet wide. In the centre of the entire range is a fine dome, and at either end is a portico and pediment, making, in the whole, one of the finest public markets in this country, and not surpassed in elegance and convenience by any that I remember elsewhere.

The public places of amusement in Boston are fewer than in



most cities of the same extent of population, either in America or Europe; arising, no doubt, from the influence of the early manners and habits of the settlers, as being unfavourable to mere entertainment without instruction. The first attempt to establish a theatre in Boston was made in 1750; but this failed, and was immediately succeeded by a law of the province prohibiting theatrical performances under severe penalties. During the siege of Boston in 1775, by the American Revolutionists, the British occupants and soldiery entertained themselves with theatrical amusements in Faneuil Hall; but nothing was afterward attempted till 1789. This also failed, and in 1792 the performance of plays was surreptitiously introduced under the title of "moral lectures."

The success that attended this led at length to the building of the first Boston theatre, which was first opened in 1794. It passed through a great variety of hands, in almost all of which it incurred a loss, and was ultimately sold to a musical association, who fitted it up for concerts under the name of the "Odeon." This building is now used for concerts, lectures, and public worship, all the theatrical appendages being removed, and a fine organ and well-arranged orchestra occupying the place of the stage. The interior of the house is fitted up with the greatest comfort, and the whole forms one of the most commodious and elegant of all the public rooms for music or lectures in Boston.

There are now, however, four theatres in the city, and all of them in occupation at present. The Tremont is the largest, most expensive, and most fashionable. It is little inferior in size or elegance to Drury Lane or Covent Garden in London; but, except when some prominent actor or actress is engaged, it is but thinly attended. The National Theatre is as large as the Tremont, but it is more frequented by the middle classes, and resembles in most respects the minor theatres in London. The Lion Theatre was

opened for equestrian exercises, and ranked with Astley's Amphitheatre at home. It has been occasionally used for melo-dramatic performances; but, like the first theatre of Boston, converted into the Odeon, the Lion is about to be transformed into a lecture-room, for which there is a greater demand than for theatres.

It is undoubtedly true, though the fact has been questioned in England, that the taste for theatrical entertainments does not exist among the generality of Americans. It has been asked, How is it possible to reconcile this with the fact that so many actors and actresses from England have made fortunes in the country? The answer is this. There is a great desire among all classes in the country to hear and see everything that is new, especially if it has had any celebrity in England; for, with all the jealousy that is felt of foreign superiority, and this is not a little, there is a great deference to English taste, and a desire on the part of every one to test this by examining for themselves the performances of all those who come to America with a high character for excellence at home. Accordingly, almost every one goes to see the new actor or hear the new singer for *once*; and this, repeated in every one of the large cities of the country, will accumulate a fortune for any one; but the second visit of the actor or singer is rarely or never successful; and a *new* person of much less talent will draw larger houses than one already seen or heard who might come again.

It is this that each new actor is almost sure of a good reception; for, however mediocre their talents, they are sure to be seen once, and this is enough. Few retain their success for any length of time; and even when their own native favourite actor, Mr Forrest, plays, he is rarely engaged for more than three or four nights at a time, in any one city, after which he removes to some other. The resident families, even then, are not frequenters of the theatre or the concert to any great extent. It is the strangers and visitors in the city who furnish the audiences; and when it is remembered that there are hardly ever less than 50,000 foreigners and strangers in New-York, and that 125 stage-coaches, railroad-cars, steamboats, and other public conveyances arrive in Boston every day, there will be found in these more than sufficient to form the largest audiences that the theatres contain; and these, probably, only frequent them because they are from home, and have neither the inducements of domestic comfort nor the fears of public opinion to keep them away.

The first museum in Boston was opened in the year 1791. Like most of the infant museums scattered through the country towns of America at present, it consisted of a few wax figures and some curiosities in nature and art. It was entirely destroyed by fire in 1803. Another was erected in 1806, five stories high, and soon began to fill; but in 1807 this was also destroyed by fire, with all its con-

tents. A third was erected on the same spot, and opened in the same year; but in 1825 it was sold for 5000 dollars to a new body of proprietors, who established the New-England Museum, which is the one now existing, and was opened in 1818. This, too, was extensively injured by fire in 1832; and though it has received many additions since then, and its collection of curiosities is large, it is deficient in scientific arrangement and good taste. Like all the other museums we had yet seen in the country, it is regarded more as a place of amusement than a repository of specimens of the various productions of Nature in her several kingdoms; and all its arrangements are made to conduce rather to entertainment than to scientific information. It is made, indeed, a matter of profit, the admission of visitors being paid for at twenty-five cents each; and whatever is most likely to attract the greatest number of visitors is therefore sought out for the Museum.

Though fires seem to have so often committed their ravages on the Boston Museum, we were struck with the fact that this was the only city in the United States in which we had been residing for so long a time without seeing or hearing of a fire. I had at first thought we were in a peculiarly fortunate quarter of the town, and that fires might have happened in other streets without our seeing or hearing of them, until I met with the following paragraph, in which this fact was announced as a wonder, in the following terms:

“No FIRES IN OCTOBER!—During the month of October, which ended yesterday, our citizens have been remarkably favoured in their exemption from fires, *not one* having occurred which was not extinguished without the aid of the Fire Department, and *but one* in which the department was alarmed. The following is a comparison of the number of fires, alarms, &c., in the same month in this and the two preceding years:

October, 1836, Fire alarms, 9.	Fires in the city, 3.	Out of the city, 2.
October, 1837, Fire alarms, 6.	Fires in the city, 2.	Out of the city, 1.
October, 1838, Fire alarms, 1.	Fires in the city, 0.	Out of the city, 0.

There are three principal causes of this change and improvement: one is, the greater substantiality of all the new buildings, the gradual disappearance of wooden, and the substitution of stone and brick edifices; another is, the great decrease of intemperance among servants and others, from whose carelessness many of the fires of former days arose; and a third is, the excellence of the municipal arrangements of watch and police, and the promptness of the fire department, by all of which a great mass of property and many lives are annually saved from destruction.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Commerce and Manufactures.—Shipping compared with New-York.—Bay and Harbour of Boston.—Navy-yard.—Dry-dock and Ropewalk.—Ships-of-War, the Ohio and Columbus.—Statistics of the American Navy.—Efficiency of their Ships, Officers, and Crews.—Causes of this, as compared with the British Navy.—Number and Classes of American Naval Officers.—Total annual Expense of the American Navy.

THE manufactures and commerce of Massachusetts have been spoken of in describing the revenues of the state. The commerce of Boston is not so extensive nor so varied as that of New-York, but its merchants are more substantially opulent, and its operations are on a larger and more comprehensive scale. The trade with India and China is either carried on direct from Boston and Salem, or the capital for conducting it is furnished from thence, though the ships may nominally sail from and arrive at New-York. Many ships are engaged in the whale-fisheries from this port; and the Pacific Islands and the west coast of South America are frequently visited by Boston vessels. There are no sailing packets from hence to London,* and only an occasional ship to that port or to Liverpool; New-York possessing almost the monopoly of trade to these ports, from her great natural advantages. The ships of Boston, though not so numerous as those of New-York, are large, substantial, and handsome vessels; and, like all American merchant ships, are abundantly well fitted in everything necessary to their safety, at anchor or at sea. Their crews are also composed of an adequate number of seamen, at good wages, and the ships are constantly kept in the best possible order and repair. In all these respects, as well as in that of uniting in their beautiful models the three qualities of good stowage, fast sailing, and riding well in a gale, they are decidedly superior to the average run of British vessels of the same class; consequently, they make better voyages, and return larger profits to their owners, officers, and crews.

An estimate may be formed of the comparative extent of ship-building and commerce in New-York and Massachusetts, by the statement of the commerce of the two states, and the number and class of vessels built in each in the year ending 1837, which was as follows:

Imports and exports of New-York State,	28,920,638 dollars.
Imports and exports of Massachusetts,	10,380,346.

The commerce of Massachusetts is scarcely, therefore, more than one third of the amount of the commerce of New-York, because New-York carries on the commerce of nearly all the interior states of the South and West as well as her own. In ship-building, how-

* The Cunard line of steam-packets has been since established.

ever, Massachusetts has the superiority over New-York, though both fall short of the State of Maine. The returns for 1837 give the following results :

	Ships.	Tonnage.
Total of the State of Maine . . .	30	27,022
Total of the State of Massachusetts . .	34	22,273
Total of the State of New-York . . .	24	19,924

The reason of this difference is, that in Maine and Massachusetts ships and smaller craft are built for other ports besides their own, though these require a considerable supply, especially Portland, Portsmouth, Newburyport, Salem, Marblehead, Boston, and Plymouth, all of which have ships engaged in distant voyages, as well as in the coasting trade and fisheries, to a great extent.

The bay and harbour of Boston are among the finest in the world. The bay contains about seventy-five square miles of space, with upward of 100 islands and rocks above water, to vary the aspect of its surface, and to protect the shipping within, by acting as breakwaters against the Atlantic Sea. It receives into its waters four rivers: the Charles, the Neponset, the Mystic, and the Manniticut, besides other smaller streams. The harbour, which is at the extremity of this bay, is capable of containing, at anchor and alongside the wharves, at least 1000 ships, without inconvenience to any from want of room; and there is abundant draught of water for the largest vessels, as line-of-battle ships pass up with ease to the Navy-yard, which is beyond the portion of the harbour occupied by the merchant ships and coasting vessels.

The Navy-yard is situated at Charlestown, one of the many suburbs of Boston, though first settled in 1630 by Governor Winthrop's company, before Boston was founded. It has at present 8500 inhabitants, and ten places of public worship, a spacious market, an almshouse, three banks, and many other public edifices, so that it is a large town in itself, but is only regarded as a suburb of Boston. The Navy-yard here occupies about 60 acres of area; and as Charlestown is seated on a neck of land, or peninsula, like Boston itself, the Navy-yard is placed at its extremity. It is thus surrounded on three of its sides by water, and on the fourth by land, where it is enclosed by a fine granite wall inside, and abutting upon which are most of the storehouses and magazines connected with the establishment, as well as a fine mansion and gardens for the residence of the naval officer in command, as superintendent of the whole.

In our visit to the Navy-yard we had the pleasure to be accompanied by this officer, Commodore Downes, who, with great courtesy and kindness, accompanied us personally over the whole of the works, as well as on board the ships of war then lying there to refit. One of the finest dry-docks in the world is contained in this Navy-yard. It is built entirely of hewn granite, executed in the

best style of masonry. The dock is 341 feet in length, eighty in breadth, and thirty in depth, and is consequently large enough to receive the largest ship in the British or American navy. There are two sets of moving gates at the entrance, which is sixty feet across, each of which gates weighs fifty tons. Outside there is a floating gate, built like an ordinary vessel, sixty feet long, fifteen feet wide, and thirty feet high, weighing about 300 tons, and requiring nineteen feet water to float it. This floating gate contains timber enough to build a ship of 400 tons' burden, and from three to four thousand dollars worth of copper sheathing and bolts have been used on it. The turning gates at high water sustain a pressure equal to 800 tons; and the dock itself is emptied of its water, when required to be made dry, by means of an hydraulic apparatus, worked by a steam-engine of sixty-horse power, which discharges twelve hogsheads at every stroke of the pumps, and completely exhausts the dock in a few hours.

The ropewalk of the Navy-yard is one of the finest I ever remember to have seen. It is nearly half a mile in length, two stories in height; it is built entirely of the same beautiful granite as that used in the construction of the dry-dock, and is roofed with iron and slate. The window-shutters are all cased with iron, and the whole is rendered fireproof. Some very recent and excellent improvements have been introduced into the machinery here, by a native American engineer, Mr. Treadwell, by which a steam-engine at one end of the building is made to furnish the requisite power for performing all the operations of rope-making, with very little aid from the labour of men, from the first combing of the hemp and spinning it into threads, to the tarring and twisting the yarn, and the winding of the whole into the hawser or the cable required.

I had seen some of the best ropewalks in England, both in the royal dockyards, and in the private establishments of London and other ports; but I remember nothing equal to this of Boston, either in the beauty and perfection of the building and the machinery, or the admirable uniformity of strain in every strand and every fibre of the rope produced; or the finished roundness, smoothness, and flexibility of the largest hawsers and cables, of which several were submitted to our examination, both in progress and completed.

The large sheds used in the dockyards of England to cover ships while building are also used here; and at the present moment there were three of such buildings, covering two frigates and a line-of-battle ship now constructing beneath them. Two noble vessels of the latter class lay alongside the yard, there being water enough for the largest ships to lie close to the wharves at low-water spring-tides, and never touch the ground. These ships were the Columbus and the Ohio, both fitting out for foreign stations; and these we were invited to inspect. The Ohio was built in New-York in 1820; the Columbus in Washington in 1819. They are both called

74's, but, like our ships-of-war of the same class, they carry more guns than they are rated at. The Ohio has 54 feet beam, and is nearly 7 feet high between decks. Both carry about 86 guns, 48-pounders on the main and lower deck, and 24-pounders on the quarter-deck and fore-castle. Everything about them was on a larger scale than in our English 74's; and their crews, especially, more numerous and more efficient, 800 men and boys being the complement of either, besides the officers. The men being all obtained by voluntary enlistment, enables the commanders to choose only efficient hands; and their crews are, therefore, all picked men. The boys are, by a recent law of Congress, apprenticed for a term of years, with their own consent and that of their parents, to the navy, and are taken great care of in their training.

We were shown the schoolroom of the Columbus, in an enclosure on the main deck, close to the bows, and underneath the fore-castle, where about 50 of these boys were receiving instruction, in reading and writing, from their masters. The discipline is quite as strict as in the English navy; but, as impressment is never resorted to to procure men, there is no necessity for that restraint on their intercourse with the shore which is imposed by the fear of their desertion; for, in general, they are so much more comfortable in ships-of-war than in merchant vessels, from receiving as good pay and provisions, with less hard work and better accommodations for sleeping, with the advantage of medical attendance when needing it, that it is rather a privilege to get a berth in a ship of the navy, where none but the best men are received; and the discharge of a dissatisfied seaman is often sufficient punishment, as there are never wanting candidates ready to fill his place.

The American navy comprises at present 1 three-decker of 120 guns, the Pennsylvania, built at Philadelphia, and said to be the largest ship in the world, capable of mounting 150 guns, though rated at only 120, and probably carrying no more at present; 11 two-deckers, rated as 74's, though all capable of carrying from 80 to 90 guns each; 18 frigates, of 64, 44, and 36 guns respectively; 16 sloops, of 24 and 18 guns each; and 10 schooners, of 12 and 10 guns each, making altogether only 56 vessels of every class; and yet, small as it is in the number of its ships, its efficiency is so great, and the skill of its officers and seamen so conspicuous, that it is superior in actual force to any other navy in the world, except that of Great Britain, and would not shrink, single-handed, from a contest with it, gun for gun and man for man, with a great probability of being the victor.

This is easily accounted for, without supposing the American officers or seamen to be at all more brave than the British, which I do not believe they are, and which even the Americans themselves would hardly pretend to say. It is enough to admit that, in point of courage, there is no difference between the Anglo-Saxon race

of England and their descendants in the United States ; but, admitting them to be equal in this respect, the Americans have a great advantage over us in every other particular.

In the first place, their ships of each class are larger, more roomy for action, more airy for health, and much greater attention is paid in them to the accommodation and comfort of the seamen than in English ships-of-war. In the second place, their ships are more amply fitted and supplied in every description of naval stores. There is no stinting, as in the British navy, of rope, canvass, spars, plank, blocks, tar, paint, and every other requisite for immediate and complete repair of everything requiring it. In the third place, their officers are all thorough-bred seamen, rocked on the ocean from their boyhood, and attaining to their respective ranks only by hard service and distinguished merit, regulated also by seniority ; while in the British navy, sons of the aristocracy mount up with rapidity from midshipmen to post-captains, often without seeing any service to give them experience, while lieutenants, over whose heads they walk in promotion, remain unhonoured and neglected, whatever the length of their services or the extent of their claims as officers and seamen. In the fourth place, the crews, instead of being dragged unwillingly on board by impressment, and there mingled with the jailbirds, as they are called, the sweepings of the police-offices and prisons, with only a portion of the ship's company, are here formed of thorough-bred and efficient able seamen, which compose the entire crews of the American navy, got together by the inducements of good pay, good provisions, good treatment, and liberty to leave the service or renew their engagements at the end of the three years for which they first entered.

The American navy, efficient as it is in the excellence of its ships, is not overburdened, like the English navy, with hosts of superfluous officers. Instead of having at the rate of one admiral for every ship in commission, it has no admirals at all ; and of the rank which corresponds to this in their navy, namely, commodores, there is only one to each station in which they may actually have a squadron, while the rest of the officers are just in proportion to the numbers required for their ships, and no more. The list for 1838 comprises the following :

Captains	50	Lieutenants	296
Masters Commandant . . .	48	Midshipmen	454

with a corresponding proportion of surgeons, pursers, sailing-masters, and warrant-officers. The expense of the whole is less than one million sterling per annum ; the actual cost in the last year, including the whole of the naval service, expenses of the navy-yards, ship-building, stores, repairs, buildings, and gradual improvements, being only 3,864,939 dollars.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Environs of Boston.—Bunker Hill.—Dimensions and Cost of the Bunker Hill Obelisk.—Town of Chelsea and Richmond Hill.—Brookline, Brighton, and Cambridge.—Dorchester, Roxbury, Jamaica Plains, and Milton Hill.—Beauty and Advantages of these Rural Retreats.—Mount Auburn, the Cemetery of Boston.—Description of its Grounds and Prospects.—Imposing Ceremony at Consecration Dell.—Citizen engaged in preparing his own Grave.—Comparison of Mount Auburn with Père la Chaise.—Tomb of Hannah Adams.—Death, Interment, and Monument of Spurzheim.

THE environs of Boston, among which Charlestown and the Navy-yard may be numbered, contain many other interesting objects well worthy of a traveller's inspection, and, consequently, of a brief description. Among these are the celebrated Bunker Hill and its monument, Chelsea, Cambridge, Brookline, Brighton, Dorchester, Roxbury, Milton Hill, and, though last, not least, the beautiful cemetery of Mount Auburn.

Bunker Hill, the scene of the celebrated battle of June 17, 1775, during the American Revolution, is situated not far from the Navy-yard, the eminence being 113 feet above the level of the harbour. It still retains some portion of the redoubts and intrenchments thrown up on that memorable occasion, though the traces of these are growing fainter every year. To keep this battle-ground, however, constantly before the eyes of the American people, it was determined to erect on the hill a granite obelisk of a sufficient size to be seen by all ships entering the harbour, and of sufficient solidity to last to the latest posterity. Having raised by subscription about 60,000 dollars, and being confident that if more were required the rest could be as easily obtained, the projectors of this undertaking first purchased the land on the hill, the area of which is about 15 acres, for 24,000 dollars. The foundation-stone of the obelisk was then laid by the lamented General Lafayette, on the anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1825, just fifty years after the fight was won; and the attraction of the occasion and the person combined drew together from all parts of the United States the largest assembly ever seen in Boston.

The design of the obelisk was to make it 30 feet square at the base, 15 feet square at the summit from whence the sloping to a point was to commence, and 220 feet in height. On this scale it was begun, and of the 80 courses of Quincy granite of two feet eight inches in thickness, of which the whole obelisk was to consist, 14 only were completed; by which time not only had all the funds subscribed been expended, but an additional 20,000 dollars raised by a mortgage of the land. There the work was suspended; and although the architect, Mr. Willand, generously subscribed

1000 dollars to the fund, and offered the gratuitous devotion of three years of time to the completion of the monument, his appeal met with no responsive echo in the feelings of the citizens, and the work remains uncompleted still. During my stay at Boston a committee was formed, and another powerful appeal made to the patriotism and public spirit of the community, to raise only 30,000 dollars, for which the architect had offered to complete the work; but this appeal, like all former ones on the same subject, fell powerless to the ground, and nothing was effected by it.

The cause of this indifference is variously accounted for. Some attribute it to the growth of the conservative spirit, which looks with dislike and distrust to all revolutionary principles and commemoration of revolutionary actions; others attribute it to the growing objections to all war and warlike monuments, from the influence of the Peace Societies. Some think that the prudent and economical are unwilling to spend their money on that which will yield no interest or profitable return; and others, again, attribute it to the fickleness of the American character, which is apt to be strongly excited by sudden impulses of feeling, and as apt to sink into the opposite state of stupor and lethargy when the excitement is over: a state from which it is difficult to arouse them, except by producing a new excitement on an entirely new subject.*

An amusing instance is given in the printed descriptions of this monument, of the national vanity of making the most of everything produced in America by comparison with the monuments of other countries. For instance, it is said that this monument, when finished, "will be the highest of the kind in the world, and only below the height of the Egyptian Pyramids!" to which it is added, "the whole quantity of stone necessary for this work is 6700 tons." Now, besides the height of at least a dozen of the spires of Gothic cathedrals in Europe exceeding 220 feet, and several above 300, to say nothing of the dome of St. Paul's in London and of St. Peter's at Rome, both above 400, and the Egyptian Pyramid above 600, or nearly three times as high as the obelisk on Bunker Hill, the difference in bulk is much more striking; for, while the number of tons of stone in the Bunker Hill Monument would be only 6700, the tons of stone in the great Pyramid of Egypt exceed 6,000,000: the comparison is therefore unfortunate, as it would take 895 Bunker Hill Monuments to make one such pyramid as that of Cheops at Memphis.

The town of Chelsea, though incorporated in 1738 as a separate town, was formerly considered to be a part of Boston, and is still regarded as one of its suburbs, the communication with it being through Charlestown already described. It is about three miles

* Since this was written a ladies' bazar has been held, by which a large sum was raised towards its completion; to which Mademoiselle Celeste, a celebrated public dancer, contributed 1000 dollars.

distant from the city in a northeast direction, and is seated on a pleasant eminence called Richmond Hill, the summit of which is about 220 feet above the level of the harbour. The River Mystic empties itself into Lynn Bay at this spot, and the Chelsea beach is a favourite place of resort in the summer.

The two Naval Hospitals are here, and are fine institutions, well conducted. There are a number of pretty villas and mansions scattered over the summit and sides of the hill, and the communication with Boston by the Charlestown Bridge and the Winnisimmet Ferry, in steamboats crossing several times in the hour, makes it a convenient place of residence for persons engaged in business at Boston, and desiring to retire from the city at night.

Brookline and Brighton are two small but interesting towns, lying within a short distance of Boston and Cambridge; and Dorchester, Roxbury, and Jamaica Plains, in another direction, with Milton Hill beyond them all, form additional resources for the wealthy citizens of Boston to enjoy, within a convenient distance of from three to eight miles, the pleasure of country residences, with good air, fine prospect, excellent gardens, and pleasant rides, in as great variety of perfection as in any city of Europe.

In visiting these neighbouring stations, indeed, it is impossible not to be struck with the same air of substantial comfort, mingled with neatness and elegance, which characterizes the town dwellings of the merchants of Boston. There is no ostentatious display, no pretensions to anything beyond the station of the occupiers, but a quiet air of rural retirement, with just as much of elegance as harmonizes with the idea of abundance and comfort, but no more; and this we found, in all the houses we visited, to be as characteristic of their interior as their exterior.

The most interesting spot, however, in all the environs of Boston, varied and beautiful as they are beyond that of any other city we had yet seen in the United States, is the Cemetery at Mount Auburn. We visited this spot, in company with one of its proprietors, on a beautiful day towards the close of September, while the rich foliage of autumn still clothed its woods, and when everything in nature was favourable to our seeing it to the greatest advantage; but, highly as our expectations had been raised by all that we had heard of this Cemetery, they were fully realized.

The spot chosen for this purpose is at a distance of about five miles from Boston, and the road to it lies through the town of Cambridge and by the Colleges of Harvard University. The area of the Cemetery is about 100 acres, extending from the main road, which passes by its front, to the banks of the Charles River, which runs along its rear. It was formerly known by the name of "Stone's Woods," from the name of the original proprietor, and the abundance and variety of its beautiful trees. It was next called "Sweet Auburn," probably from the well-known line of Goldsmith,

"Sweet Auburn, loveliest village of the plain."

It was purchased by the Massachusetts Horticultural Society in 1831; and its beautifully-undulated surface, its rich umbrageous woods, and its perfect seclusion and tranquillity, combining every requisite for a cemetery, it was determined to devote it to this purpose. At the same time, portions of the area were reserved for the use of the Horticultural Society as an experimental garden, and the two objects were thus happily united without injury to either.

The principal eminence of this spot, called by distinction Mount Auburn, is 125 feet above the level of the river that washes the edge of the grounds, and from it the view is extensive and beautiful, embracing, as it does, a fine prospect of the city of Boston, with most of its suburbs, the winding river, the cultivated fields, and the blue ridge of the Milton Hills in the distance; while the buildings of Cambridge University to the east, the fine lake called Fresh Pond to the north, and the elevated lands of Watertown and Brighton, with the numerous country seats and villas scattered around, complete a picture of great extent and beauty. While all this prospect, however, may be enjoyed from the summit of the mount, a few yards of descent will bring the visiter within the shadows of the deep forest and secluded glade, where he may be as much shut out from the visible world as if he were a thousand miles from any habitation. One of these beautiful spots, forming a hollow and almost circular valley, surrounded with a steep, rising amphitheatre of hills covered with thick wood, and a beautiful sheet of water in the centre, is called Consecration Dell, from its being the spot judiciously chosen for the public service of consecrating the ground on the 24th of September, 1831, just seven years ago, and in the same season of the year in which we now saw it.

Those who were present at that ceremony, of whom our friend and companion was one, describe it as most imposing and impressive, which may be readily conceived. Around this amphitheatre of wooded hills were seated many thousands of the inhabitants of Boston and the surrounding neighbourhood, and in the arena below, around the margin of the lake, were placed the principal personages who officiated in the services of the day. An eloquent and impressive address was then delivered by Judge Story, which made a deep impression on all who heard it; and when this was followed by the singing of an ode by Mr. Pierpont, to the music of the Old Hundredth psalm, the mingling of the thousands of voices, of all ages and of both sexes, ascending from this hollow dell to the blue vault of heaven above, as the pure homage of a delighted and grateful multitude to the great Creator of the Universe, was overpoweringly grand and sublime, and seemed to touch the hearts of all who witnessed this impressive scene with a spirit of humility, devotion, reverence, and awe.*

* A copy of this ode will be found in the Appendix, No. VII.

The arrangement, or laying out of the grounds generally, is in good taste, uniting the simplicity of nature with the order and preservation of art. The monuments hitherto erected are not so varied in form and style as it is desirable they should be; but though there is a little too much of formality and sameness in the separation of the several allotments of ground, and the monuments enclosed in them, there is nothing offensive from either of the extremes of ostentation or meanness, while many of the tombs are beautiful, and would be so regarded anywhere.

Each allotment contains 300 square feet, which is deemed sufficient for a family burial-place; and about 250 of these allotments have been sold at sixty dollars each, the purchaser holding the spot in fee forever to them and their descendants. Nearly all of these are enclosed, as soon as purchased, with iron railings of various patterns and different degrees of costliness; and in a great many the monuments are erected in anticipation, and inscribed with the names of their future occupants, though the parties are still living, and many of them in the prime of life. We met, indeed, during our visit to the Cemetery, one person who was engaged in the act of digging his own vault, and preparing the ground around it for enclosure. He was a farmer of the neighbourhood, who had purchased the requisite square for his family burial-ground; and having spare time at this season of the year, and being used to labour, he came in, he said, for a few hours each day to do this portion of the work, and, when this was completed, the mason and the sculptor would do the rest.

However unusual this may seem, I am disposed to believe that it is wise and beneficial for men to familiarize themselves more than they do with the certainty of that death from which none can hope to be exempt, to contemplate more frequently the tomb to which they must all descend. There can be no good reason why death should be associated with sorrow and gloom, as it is the common practice of mankind to do. Regarded only as a release from the pains and anxieties, the sorrows and the cares inseparable from ordinary existence, it would seem to present an acceptable asylum, "where the wicked cease from troubling and the weary are at rest;" but, regarded in the still higher and more ennobling light of a passage from mortality to immortality—from the darkness, doubt, and ignorance of mere humanity, to the light, the confidence, and the full meridian of intelligence and happiness, to which this immortality will lead the spirit or the soul when disencumbered of its earthly tenement—it is altogether unworthy of those who regard death in this endearing and inviting point of view, to speak of its approach with regret, to associate its occurrence with mourning, or to refer to it in terms of sorrow or repining. Everything that can wean mankind from this too general habit should be hailed as an important improvement. I should re-

joice, therefore, to see the day when the conviction of death being a blessing rather than a curse should become so general as that all mention of it as an evil should be avoided, all associations of sorrow and mourning with it be discontinued. Its arrival ought to be so calmly and placidly anticipated, that man's chief care should be, not how he could best protract the period of its coming, so as to lengthen out his days upon the earth, but how he could best prepare himself to meet his end with resignation and joy, in the confidence that his past life would not dishonour his name when it came to be inscribed on the mansion of death, and that the immortality which awaited him beyond the tomb would be such as it would be worthy of a wise and beneficent Deity to bestow, and of an intellectual and never-dying being to receive at his hands: an immortality as full of unclouded happiness to the receiver, as of honour and glory to the great Giver of all good things, from whom alone it could proceed.

A comparison has been often made between the Père la Chaise of Paris and the Mount Auburn of Boston, and the similarity of their situation and their purpose naturally forces this comparison on the mind. Having seen both, I may venture to offer an opinion on this subject, with great deference, however, to those who may think otherwise. In many respects, then, I think Mount Auburn superior to Père la Chaise. Its natural scenery of hill and dale, of river, lake, and forest-trees, with other surrounding objects, presents a combination which is not to be found in the cemetery of Paris, and which is far more in harmony with the repose of the dead than the most sumptuous monuments, without these combinations, can be. In this last respect Père la Chaise is perhaps unrivalled. The splendid sepulchral trophies raised within its area to the illustrious men of France have no parallel, that I remember, in modern nations. But even this is in excess. The multiplicity of the monuments occasions the ground to be cut up into small plats, the tombs are too crowded, and there is often a painful contrast between the overwhelming magnificence of some and the poverty and neglect of others, to say nothing of the perpetual offences to good taste which is offered by the little pictures, crosses, beads, and other extraneous ornaments with which many of the smaller tombs are decorated.

In Père la Chaise you feel that you are in the immediate vicinity of a crowded and populous city, and that all around you is intended to catch the eye and elicit the praise of the living, everything being strained to the utmost to produce an effect. In Mount Auburn you feel that you are in the depths of the most rural solitude, where Nature reigns still triumphant, and where art is but subordinate; where the tranquil repose of the dead is as yet undisturbed by the intrusion of crowded throngs, or the simplicity of innocence and the gravity of death obscured by the admixture of the

vainglorious, the trifling, or the bombastic. And if the good taste of the American people shall continue to preserve this beautiful cemetery in the same state of purity, by causing all their future additions to be in subordination to the natural grandeur of the place, and make the "beauty of simplicity" their general aim, it will long continue to enjoy its present superiority, and be as instructive and profitable to the minds of those who may hereafter visit it in a becoming spirit of reflection and meditation, as it is at present agreeable to those who frequent it as a mere place of innocent and pleasurable recreation. *

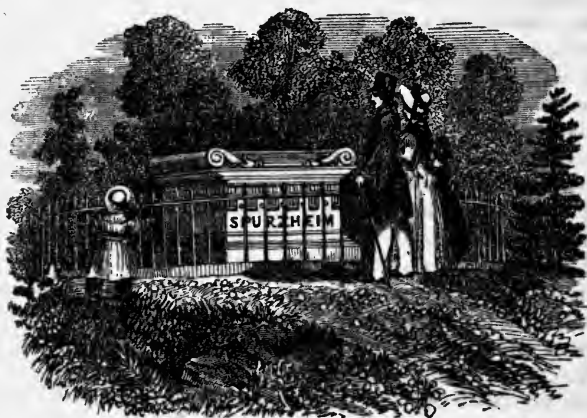
There is one defect, however, which candour obliges me to mention, but happily it is one which may be easily remedied. I allude to the Egyptian gateway at the entrance. The great and distinguishing characteristics of Egyptian architecture are, first, colossal size, and, next, massiveness and durability of material. In the present instance, three small gateways, connected by a slender wall, and the whole sustained by an iron railing (a thing never seen in Egyptian buildings), crowd the place of entrance; while the very loftiest of the gates is only twenty-five feet in height, a scale which everywhere in Egypt would be thought most diminutive. The effect of the whole is to produce a strange combination of heaviness and littleness quite unworthy the place, and to leave a most unfavourable impression on the visitor. It is to be hoped that it will speedily be removed, to be replaced by a Grecian or Roman entrance, after the manner of a triumphal gateway, with a fine open colonnade of the Ionic order, extending such length as may be thought necessary, and making a light and graceful open front, instead of the cumbrous and inappropriate gates and railings which now form the entrance.

Among the tombs within the grounds there are some of beautiful design, and many are executed from the finest Italian marble, having indeed been made in Italy, and sent out and erected here. Others have been executed in Boston, and with great taste and skill, though this is a branch of art but recently cultivated in the city. The tomb of the first person interred within the grounds is that of Hannah Adams, a lady of Boston, who was authoress of a *History of the Jews* and a *Review of the Christian Sects*. She died at the age of seventy-six, within three months after the public celebration in Consecration Dell, September, 1831; and her interment being the first within the consecrated ground, a monument was erected to her memory by her female friends.

In the following year, October, 1832, the celebrated John Gaspar Spurzheim was added to the literary tenants of Mount Auburn. This distinguished teacher of phrenology had visited the United States from England, and had delivered a course of lectures on his favourite science in the Athenæum of Boston during the month of September, 1832. These were so enthusiastically received that

he was induced to repeat them; and from over-exertion in their delivery to very crowded audiences, and some want of care in protecting himself from the sudden changes of temperature occasioned by the transition from heated rooms to the sharp and penetrating atmosphere of an American evening in autumn, he caught a severe cold, which brought on a fever, and, after an illness of a few days only, this terminated in his death.

His loss was very generally felt and deplored; his interment at Mount Auburn was largely attended; and a beautiful marble tomb, after the fashion of a Roman sarcophagus, with the single word SPURZHEIM engraved on it, was erected within the Cemetery, over his grave, by his friends and admirers in Boston.*



CHAPTER XXXIX.

Visit to the Massachusetts State Prison.—System of Management.—Statistics of this Prison.—Chief Causes of Crime.—Memorial of the Convicts against Dramshops.—Food and general Health of the Prisoners.—Dress.—Discipline and Punishments.—Efforts for their Moral and Religious Improvement.—Comparison with the Prison System of Pennsylvania.

ONE of the last of the public establishments that we visited in the neighbourhood of Boston was the Massachusetts State-prison, where the warden accompanied us over every part of the building, and answered all our inquiries with the greatest readiness and attention.

This prison is situated at Charlestown, and is almost surrounded

* An Ode sung at the funeral of Spurzheim will be found in the Appendix, No. VIII.

by the ordinary dwellings of the inhabitants in that suburb of Boston, so that in this respect it is not so advantageously placed as either Auburn or Singing, the State-prisons of New-York, or the Penitentiary of Philadelphia. The whole area covered by the prison is about 500 feet long by 240 feet wide. This is enclosed by a strong wall, built of granite, five feet thick at the base, and from fifteen to eighteen feet in height, surmounted by a wooden palisade, and the ramparts are guarded by a vigilant watch day and night. On two of its sides, the north and west, the prison walls are washed by the tide-water; and in the neighbourhood of the prison is a large wharf for shipping off the work executed within it, and for landing the materials and supplies it receives, with a canal and lock to admit boats to come within the prison enclosure, under an arch that is perfectly secure.

The interior arrangement of the prison consists of an open court or yard, around which are various workshops, especially a large shed for stonecutters, another for cabinet-makers, shops for smiths, carpenters, brushmakers, shoemakers, and tailors, in which the convicts are employed during the day; and in another part of the yard is the large and lofty building containing the solitary cells, to which the prisoners are marched every evening, and where they pass the night. Added to this is a chapel for public worship, storehouse, a kitchen, and other offices of various descriptions. The first cost of the prison, before the separate cells were built, was 170,000 dollars. The subsequent addition of these cells, of which there are 300 in number, cost 86,000 dollars; so that the whole cost upward of a quarter of a million of dollars, or more than 50,000*l.* sterling; but it is as commodious, perhaps, as it is ever desirable that a place of punishment should be, and appears to be everywhere perfectly secure.

The system on which the Massachusetts State-prison is governed is the same as that which is in use at Auburn and Singing, in the State of New-York, and is called "the Silent System," in contradistinction to the system in use at Philadelphia, which is called "the Solitary System." The routine of occupation is the following: The convicts all sleep in separate cells, which are about nine feet long by three feet six inches broad; in each of these is a flat cot bottom, which turns up against the wall by a hinge, and lets down flat when needed to sleep on, with a small shelf, a stool, and a Bible: this is the only furniture of each cell. The prisoners are all summoned to work at daylight throughout the year, so that in summer they are up before four o'clock, and in winter not till nearly eight o'clock. They are first assembled in the chapel to morning prayer, and then marched in single file to their respective workshops, where, with the intervals for meals only, they are kept at work till sunset throughout the year, their summer's day, therefore, being at least fifteen hours long, and their winter's day not more

than nine. The convicts entering the prison who know any art or trade, are put to work in the department most nearly resembling it; but they who are not acquainted with any are usually employed as stonecutters, this being more easily learned than any other.

In each workshop there is a superintendent acquainted with the nature of the work done in it, who inspects, corrects, and instructs the convicts employed; and, in addition to this, there is one or more inspectors, whose sole business it is to watch the convicts narrowly, to mark any who are guilty of any misconduct, and report them to the warden. The rule of the prison is, that no convict is to speak to another on any pretence whatever; and if, in the course of their labour, it may be necessary for one of the workmen to communicate with the person working with him, it can only be done through the inspector. The person wishing to speak, therefore, holds up his hand, and the inspector comes to him, when, ascertaining what is required to be done, he gives the order himself; but even this kind of intercourse must be as seldom as possible, and, if unnecessarily brought on, it is punished as if the convicts conversed together. It is freely admitted, however, by the officers themselves, that communications between the prisoners cannot be entirely prevented; and by looks, signs, and whispers, audible enough for two or three near each other to hear distinctly, they can hold intercourse in a way that baffles all detection.

It was formerly the case that each convict, or a party working together, had a certain task allotted them, and all the produce of their labour beyond this was put into a savings' bank to each man's account; but, in the opinion of the wardens, this was thought to be productive of evil, and has been discontinued. At present no emolument is received by any of the convicts, and the profits of their labour forms the revenue out of which the expenses of the prison are defrayed. In the stone-shed the men were at work on some large granite blocks intended for a public building at Mobile, in the Gulf of Mexico. In the cabinet department the men were working under contract for upholsterers of Boston, who engage the labour of the men at 40 cents a day, and find them tools and materials, while in the town the ordinary wages of workmen exceeds a dollar a day, or more than double the prison-rate, a competition of which the honest workmen very naturally complain.

Up to the period of the late commercial embarrassment, the prison not only maintained itself, but produced a surplus revenue. Within the last two years, however, there has been a deficiency, the double cause of decreased demand for their labour and increased cost of provisions having operated most unfavourably: this deficiency the funds of the state will of course have to supply.

The statistics of the Massachusetts State-prison, as drawn from the latest report laid before the State Legislature, is as follows:

MASSACHUSETTS STATE PRISON. REPORT OF THE WARDEN, 1857.

Whole number of convicts in prison	302
Received during the past year	90
Natives of Massachusetts among these	40
Natives of other states in the Union	36
Foreigners of all nations	23
Natives of Ireland exclusively	13
Convicted for violations of property	97
Convicted for crimes of violence	2
Recommitments during the year	13
Deaths during the year	5

The principal classes of offences for which the prisoners are confined are, out of the 302, for

Larceny	174	Counterfeiting money	10
Forgery	19	Attempt at rape	8
Burglary	17	Manslaughter	7

The ages of the prisoners vary from 15 to 65, and their term of sentence from one year to 20 years, and some for life. One instance is that of an Irish boy of 14, who was convicted of having deliberately set fire to an almshouse and burned several persons in it: he was sentenced to be hanged; but, from his extreme youth, this was commuted to confinement in the State Prison for life. His sentence appeared to have made little impression on him, and he had shown no symptoms of remorse or regret.

Of the whole number in prison, namely, 302, there are 17 negroes and 7 mulattoes; the rest are all whites; and the proportion of coloured people to whites fluctuates between 6 and 8 per cent.

There are no females at present confined in the State-prison, as it was found, by experience, disadvantageous to both sexes that they should be kept in sight of each other, and they have since been separated, the females being now confined in the House of Correction. But it is not many weeks since four young females were convicted of robbery on the highway, and sentenced to a long imprisonment; they were natives of Ireland, and were urged most probably by intemperance to the act.

On the subject of the chief causes of crime, the experience furnished by the State-prison of Massachusetts corresponds with that of all other similar establishments in this and in every other country yet examined. Ignorance, idleness, and intemperance are the three prominent and most productive causes that bring the unhappy convicts there in the first instance; and these, after their first confinement, often bring them again back a second, and sometimes even a third time. On this subject the report has the following striking and instructive observations, grounded on the experience of years:

"We know how very difficult it must be, and is, for a convict to take and maintain a decent rank in society when he quits a prison. The mere fact that he has been confined in it will generally render it very difficult for him to obtain honest employment, and idleness will be followed by bad company. Among the first persons seen by a discharged

convict who has no employment, are the very beings who were instrumental in consigning him to this place, or persons of as bad character. In such company, all the inducements to crime are again spread before him, when he has no virtuous friends whose advice or example may shield him from temptation; and it is not matter of surprise if he yields to it. When we reflect that this is probably the situation of a majority of those discharged every year, we must consider it a remarkable fact that the number of recommitments is so small, and that it affords a strong proof of the good state of moral discipline in this institution. Still it is a subject deserving the most serious attention of the friends of humanity, to ascertain what can be done for the convict when he quits the penitentiary."

On this subject something has been done by private benevolence; and many, it is believed, have been rescued from destruction by being taken by the hand, and provided with new clothes and a few dollars to pay the expense of their journey to the regions of the West. The good effect produced by this has led the directors of the prison since to adopt the practice of giving to each convict, when discharged, the means of presenting a decent appearance in apparel, and a few dollars to get them beyond the limits of the state; for, if they linger about Boston after their discharge, they are almost sure to fall into bad company, and get to the grogshop, and then their relapse into crime and recommitment are almost certain.

A most striking instance was lately afforded of the convicts themselves being fully aware of the dangers to which they are subject on leaving the prison, as they communicated their wishes to the warden that a memorial should be sent up from the inmates of the prison to the State Legislature, praying them not to repeal the law recently passed, and just about to be put into operation, which forbids the retail sale of ardent spirits in any smaller quantities than 15 gallons, by which all dramshops would be annihilated, and the chief and most powerful of all the temptations to commit crime be removed from their path.

The food of the prisoners is coarse, but wholesome and abundant, two pounds of bread and one of meat being allowed to each man per day, besides occasional supplies of coffee, molasses, &c. On this simple diet, with water only for their drink, they generally improve in health and strength, though the cost per man in food and clothing is only 11 cents, or less than sixpence sterling, daily.

The notion that increase of education and exercise of intelligence lead to the increase of crime—which some few, even in America, and many more in England, have strangely entertained—receives no countenance from the experience of those who have the best opportunities of forming a judgment on this subject. The report of the superintendent of this prison says:

"A well-educated person is seldom seen here. There is not a graduate of any college among the convicts, excepting one from England. Good education, self-respect, deference to public opinion, and regard for

the feelings of friends, are as close companions as ignorance, bad company, and intemperance. And the first as certainly secure obedience to the laws, as the last lead on to crime and ignominious punishment. This lesson is taught here by daily experience. It is undoubtedly so in all other prisons, and the fact shows the importance of our public schools, as the best defences against the vices and habits which lead so many to crime and the penitentiary."

The following selection from the chaplain's report for 1837 speaks volumes as to the combination of ignorance and intemperance in the production of crime:

Could not read	34	Habitual drinkers	104
Could not write	84	Habitually intemperate	190
Ignorant of arithmetic	96	Intoxicated at the time	156

The prison-dress is a jacket, trousers, and cap of coarse cloth, which has the right half of each garment red, and the left half blue; and is so marked to cause those who may escape in it to be instantly recognised as convicts, and thus lead to their recapture. Great attention is nevertheless paid to the cleanliness of their apparel.

Punishments of some kind or other are deemed indispensable; and there appeared, from all the conversation I enjoyed with the warden and officers, an evidently strong desire among them all to have recourse to this as seldom as possible, and never but in cases of extreme necessity.

Perhaps the most interesting portion of all the information connected with this painful subject, is that which narrates the efforts made for the reformation of the criminals, and the degree of success which is believed to have attended it. On this the report of the chaplain is of course the highest authority; and from the personal intercourse which I had with this officer of the prison, I have every reason to believe that it is as correct in point of fact as it is honourable to himself and his co-labourers in this work of humanity. He says:

"The Sunday-school of this prison is under the immediate superintendence of the chaplain, although either the warden or his deputy, and one subordinate officer of the prison, are always present, to see that perfect order is maintained, and that nothing takes place inconsistent with the sacredness of the day or of the occasion. The school is instructed by from twenty to thirty suitably qualified individuals, who from Sabbath to Sabbath, according to previous engagement, attend for that purpose. These teachers uniformly seem to feel a very deep interest in this school, and there is no service in which they engage with more apparent delight, although many of them travel the distance of several miles, and not unfrequently when the weather is unpleasant and severe. The convicts, also, who compose this school, with very few exceptions, seem to value it highly, and to feel a lively interest in the instructions they there receive; and no doubt can be rationally cherished but this school is constantly exerting an influence to enlighten, to improve, and to bless those who receive its instructions."

It is impossible to appreciate too highly the disinterested benevolence of those teachers who, without fee or reward, and without

hope of worldly fame or gain, but animated solely by compassion for the unfortunate, undertake the weekly task of giving instruction to those who have chiefly fallen into crime because they were not sufficiently fortified by education and religion to resist its temptations; and, accordingly, the report speaks of their pure and holy labours in terms that will find a response in every just and humane heart.

We quitted the prison, after devoting several hours to its examination, with heavy hearts and depressed spirits at the scenes we had witnessed there, though not without a feeling of satisfaction at the assurance that everything which reason and humanity could dictate, so as to unite the requisite protection of society with the necessary restraint and ultimate improvement of the prisoner, was here adopted.

Of the superiority of this system of prison discipline over that which prevailed in England up to a very recent period, and over that which is in practice throughout the greatest portion of Europe now, there can be no doubt; and all benevolent minds must hail this improvement as a great triumph of reason and morality over passion and vindictiveness, which held almost supreme sway in the treatment of condemned criminals heretofore. At the same time, while admitting this improvement over the old systems of treatment to the fullest extent, my convictions were unchanged by anything I saw or heard here as to the decided superiority of the Solitary System of Pennsylvania over the Silent System of New-York and Massachusetts. The reasons of this preference are stated so much at large in my descriptions of the Penitentiary at Philadelphia and the State-prison at Auburn, that they need not be repeated here. They have gathered strength by deliberation and comparison; and I cannot but indulge the hope that their force will soon become sufficiently apparent to lead to the general adoption of the Pennsylvania system in all the prisons of America, of England, and of Europe at large.

CHAPTER XL.

State Elections.—Specimens of partisan Exultation.—Local and general Election at Boston.—Statistics of Intemperance.—Silent Progress of the Abolition Question.—Denunciations of the Whig Newspapers.—Letter of an invited Candidate.—Address of the Ex-president, John Quincy Adams.—Speech on Slavery by Dr. Duncan, of Ohio.

DURING our stay in Boston, the second general election since we had been in the country took place, and I felt great interest in watching its progress. The election commenced first in New-

York, where it was held on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of November; it was followed up in Boston on the 13th of November, occupying three days in the former, and only one day in the latter city. In New-York the contest was extremely severe, each party, the Conservative and the Democratic, using its utmost exertions, and devoting all its time and energies to the polls. Everything, however, went off quietly, and not a single breach of the peace appears to have occurred in any quarter. The Conservatives, or Whigs, as they call themselves, though they correspond in general principles with our Tories in England, were victorious over the Democrats, their opponents, whom they often call Tories, though these correspond with the Radicals of Great Britain, and their joy was excessive. The language of the New-York papers on this occasion gives so accurate a picture of the bombastic and extravagant manner in which such matters are viewed and described by political partisans, that a few specimens of them may be given, as they were repeated in the Boston papers of the same week:

"FROM THE NEW-YORK COURIER AND ENQUIRER. GREAT AND GLORIOUS VICTORY!—NEW-YORK TRIUMPHANT!—THE COUNTRY SAVED!—'We have met the enemy, and they are ours.' New-York was called upon to save the country; and promptly, fearlessly, and nobly has she done her duty! Her sister states invoked her to come to the rescue; she heard, and she obeyed! Van Burenism lies prostrate in the dust. Toryism stands rebuked. Loco Focoism, Agrarianism, and the Sub-Treasury, together with all experiments upon the currency, are prostrated, never again to raise their hideous heads, and threaten the subversion of our free institutions! Against the entire moneyed force of the government; against fraud and corruption in every form they could assume; and against the people's money, employed to enslave the people, have the Whigs of New-York contended and triumphed.

"For three days have we met the enemy at the polls; and the three days in Paris in 1830 were not more signally destructive to the white flag of the Bourbons, than has been our three days to the piratical flag of the Custom-house; the black insignia under which the enemies of free institutions rallied in the city! Our enemies have met with a Waterloo defeat; and with the disappearance of the lights at Tammany Hall, which were struck at an early hour last night, the miserable minions of power skulked into their hiding-places, and are now repenting in sack-cloth and ashes their folly in supposing that a free people could be made to surrender their birthright without a struggle.

"The sceptre has departed from them; the people have spoken in a voice of thunder to their oppressors; and when that voice reaches the recesses of the palace where Van Buren, 'solitary and alone,' will receive it, his coward soul will shrink within itself; and conscience, if he has any, will whisper in her still small voice, 'Thus are demagogues and tyrants ever rebuked when they aim to subvert the liberties of the people.'"

The language here used would induce any stranger to suppose that the party in power were absolute tyrants, ruling by virtue of Divine right, and in no way responsible to the people, and that the rebuking parties were Democrats, and friends of liberty and free institutions. But the fact is just the reverse of this. Mr. Van

Buren is president of the United States by no other title than his election to that office by a large majority of the citizens, whose votes alone elevated him to that dignity; and the only manner in which he has attempted "to subvert the liberties of the people," as is alleged, has been to oppose himself to what he deemed the monopoly of chartered banks, to lending out the surplus revenue of the country as deposits for these banks to use as capital in trade, he preferring a National Treasury for the safe custody of the people's money. If it be thus that men are tyrants and aim to subvert the liberties of the people, the same words must have such opposite meanings for different persons, that language ceases to be a safe medium for conveying accurate ideas. But once more for a specimen of exultation:

"FROM THE EVENING STAR. BATTLE OF WATERLOO!—ROUT OF THE LOCO FOCOS!—THE COUNTRY SAVED!—We have fought the great fight, and have conquered. For the last six months the administration has been gathering its clans and preparing for the onslaught, and never were preparations more formidable. Every aid that money could procure, that office could control, were brought to bear on this election, but all to no purpose. The Whigs, animated by a just sense of the wrongs under which our country has suffered, came forth to the rescue in all their force and power, and succeeded. We cannot at this time go into details: some of the wards have not yet been canvassed; some are estimated; there are an immense number of split tickets, and tickets of all colours and complexions, which will require several days to count. Let us come to results. The whole Whig ticket, Governor, Lieutenant-governor, Congress, and Assembly, is elected by at least 1500 majority, as we predicted yesterday. 'Glory enough for one day.'"

"FROM THE NEW-YORK COMMERCIAL ADVERTISER. THE VICTORY.—'We have met the enemy, and they are ours.' 'Let the kettle to the trumpet speak!' By the subjoined table and statements, our friends at home and abroad will perceive that we have not deceived them in the flattering accounts we have given of the progress of the election during the last three days. The Whigs of this city went into the contest under every possible disadvantage, save only that their cause was just, and that in the character, activity, and energy of an excellent mayor they had a strong guarantee that the peace of the city would be preserved, and that the electors would be enabled to visit the polls without jeopardizing life or limb."

Here is a distinct admission that the freedom of election is so perfect, that though 40,000 votes were polled in three days, not the least interruption had taken place, and no jeopardy of life or limb had been incurred by those visiting the polls. This is enough to satisfy any impartial stranger that the government of the country took no more pains to interfere with the elections of New-York than with those of Liverpool or Manchester; and that all the rhodomontade "of money being poured out like water," and "armies of office-holders" and "bands of foreign mercenaries" being employed to obstruct the freedom of election—which was asserted by the New-York Express—is, like the allusions to "the battle of Waterloo," the "glorious three days of Paris," and other images of

this description, mere fustian and bombast. A Boston editor, however, of the *Centinel and Gazette*, taking up the strain, gravely insisted in his paper that, though the battles of Cressy and Agincourt were important in early days, and that of Waterloo important in modern, they were all as nothing compared to the victory of the three glorious days of New-York, which, according to all the Whig writers, had saved the country from inevitable and irretrievable ruin, which must have buried the people in one general grave of beggary and starvation if the elections had terminated in favour of the existing administration!

It is agreeable to witness the silent but rapid progress which is making in the cause of freedom for the negroes, notwithstanding the powerful pecuniary interests involved in this question, and the stand made by the great body of the wealthy merchants and traders of the North, who profit by their commerce with the South, against all agitation of the subject. It has been shown that Massachusetts, even before the revolution of 1776, had passed acts for the abolition of slavery in her own state, which were shamefully disallowed by the British government. It is equally well known that, from the construction put by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, since the Revolution, on that clause of their charter which declares that "all men are born free and equal," negro slavery has long since ceased to exist here.

But it deserves also to be as extensively known, which probably it is not, that in this state the negroes are not only free, but enjoy the electoral suffrage, and take their part and give their votes in local and general elections with all the freedom and independence of their white fellow-citizens. I made inquiry in every quarter as to the use made of this privilege, and I did not hear a single complaint of it, or a single expression of regret at their enjoyment of this distinction, or of a desire to deprive them of it. On the contrary, all parties bore testimony to the quiet, orderly, and discreet use which the negroes and coloured people of various shades made of this privilege whenever called upon to exercise it.

It is hardly to be wondered at, therefore, that in this state the public sentiment in favour of abolition should increase both in intensity and in extent. But this change is working chiefly among the religious and the reflecting classes. The newspapers, to their shame be it spoken, are among the foremost to denounce abolition and the abolitionists, especially if any effort is intended to be made upon the principles they profess. So long as these true friends of liberty for the whole human race content themselves with holding their opinions in silence, or praying for the slaves in their churches, they are deemed innocent, or, at least, harmless fanatics; but if they send forth an agent to lecture, he is mobbed and lynched by the infuriated populace, excited by those who dread the loss of their profits by any rupture between the North and the South; and

if any public meeting is held or resolutions are made public, they are denounced as incendiary and revolutionary, from their tendency to bring about a dissolution of the Union. It was thus that because the friends of the negro exerted themselves to procure, for as many of those who thought and felt with them, the support of the electors as candidates for seats in Congress (though in so doing they did no more than persons of all classes of opinion do in similar cases), they were denounced as "traitors," as will be seen by the following paragraph from the New-York Star, which was transferred to the columns of the Boston Centinel of November 20.

"Hitherto we have regarded the leading abolitionists as a body of men acting together to give weight and influence to a peculiar religious sect, and also to advance their own fortunes in a business-monopoly, from their great exertions in the cause of humanity. All this, however, was innocent, compared to the bold profligacy of unfurling the banner of party. Formerly they used arguments, printed tracts, preached and talked abolition; now they seek to taint the ballot-box, and threaten candidates with losing their election unless they acknowledge themselves abolitionists, and immediate abolitionists. It is thus they avow their treason; for if the abolition of slavery is to be effected by destroying the constitutional compact, as well as the union of the states, treason is the mildest name we can give to it. Some of our Whig friends—very few, we are pleased to say—plead in their behalf, because they have votes which we want, forgetful that when we obtain abolition votes here we lose whole states elsewhere; others affect to despise their numbers; but if they are to be coaxed, and entreated, and sustained, and purchased, instead of being at once put down, we shall soon place the balance of power in their hands. The Whigs must not permit themselves to be mixed up with abolition; they must cast it off at once, or the Whig party will be broken down. Already have the arts of the abolitionists given to this state a Whig-abolition lieutenant-governor: if farther impositions are to be practised upon us, we shall be deservedly abandoned by the Whig states of the South, such noble Whig states as North Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, &c., and our business-intercourse, our prosperous trade or internal commerce, and all the ties which should bind citizen to citizen, will at once be dissevered. The danger is but too evident: 'the bow is bent, let us make firm the shaft.'"

In the Boston Courier of the same date, Nov. 20, was published a noble and high-spirited letter of one of the candidates for election, in reply to those of the Whigs who had invited him to occupy this position. But such is the lurking dislike to abolition on the part of the newspaper conductors generally, that even this editor, who admits that "the letter contains some striking truths," and thinks that "the doctrines are, *in the main*, such as every son of New-England will approve," feels compelled to qualify his commendation by the expression of his regret that some of the writer's co-labourers in the field should have defeated an election by a *too strict application of their principles*.

I found generally, among the middle and industrious classes, and among the more benevolent and reflecting portion of the higher orders, a gradual approaching towards such sentiments and such

resolutions as those expressed by the writer of the letter adverted to; so that my conviction daily gathered strength, in the face of many surrounding impediments, that the cause of abolition, or equal freedom for all classes of men, without distinction of colour or caste, is making a steady progress in the hearts and minds of the most intelligent, most virtuous, and, consequently, the most silently influential classes of America, and that the period of emancipation for the slaves of the South is, therefore, not so remote as many would fain have mankind to believe.

I should have added that another striking and beautiful example of attachment to principle and love of truth was about the same period evinced by the venerable ex-president, John Quincy Adams, one of the descendants of the pilgrim fathers, and son of the second president, John Adams, one of the signers of the Declaration of American Independence. After a firm and fearless discharge of his duty, as the friend of man, without distinction of colour or race, in the Congress of the United States, Mr. Adams was again elected to fill the honourable office of representative for the 12th electoral district of Massachusetts, in which the rock of Plymouth, the landing-place of the pilgrim fathers, is situated, and in whose waters the pilgrim ship, the Mayflower, first cast anchor. In his address to his constituents on this occasion are found the following striking passages:

"I regret that I am not enabled to indulge, with equal confidence, the hope, that the right of petition and the freedom of debate, smothered as they have been for nearly three years in the legislative halls of the nation, will be restored in all their plenitude and in all their purity. Slavery shrinks, and will shrink, from the eye of the day. Northern subserviency to Southern dictation is the price paid by a Northern administration for Southern support. The people at the North still support by their suffrages the men who have truckled to Southern domination, and their representatives have not been shamed out of the distinction between refusing to receive and refusing to read and petition. I believe it is impossible that this total subversion of every principle of liberty should be much longer submitted to by the people of the free states of this Union.

"Should the people of the twelfth Congressional district of Massachusetts again see fit to station me as their sentinel on the watchtower of the nation, they will not expect from me consent, acquiescence, or compromise with the system or any of its parts. Unyielding hostility against it is interwoven with every pulsation of my heart. Resistance against it, feeble and inefficient as the last accents of a failing voice may be, shall be heard while the power of utterance still remains, and shall never cease till the pitcher shall be broken at the fountain, the dust return to the earth as it was, and the spirit unto God who gave it."

Mr. Adams's whole career is consistent with his latest as well as with his earliest professions; and while there are such men as his constituents and himself to be found taking an active and vigilant part in public affairs, American slavery must be every day drawing nearer to its end.

While such men as these exist, and such sentiments as these are published in the United States, it is certainly neither just nor honourable to charge the entire American nation with the guilt of maintaining slavery, in opposition to the Declaration of American Independence, which proclaims that "all men are born free and equal." Those who uphold and defend this bondage of their fellow-men should alone be held responsible for that guilt; but they who do their utmost to wipe away the stain from others, ought not to have any portion of the defilement imputed to themselves; and it would be well if public writers and public speakers in England would keep this just distinction in view.

CHAPTER XLI.

Population of Boston and its Suburbs.—Fewness of Foreigners.—Jews and Quakers.—Commercial and other Occupations.—Opinions of a native Writer on the Traders.—Political Parties.—Whigs and Democrats.—Aristocratical and Democratical Whigs.—New-York Review on the State of Society.—Observations on social Parties from the Pulpit.—Extreme Sensitiveness to English Censure.—Newspaper Editors.—Scriptural and classical Names of New-Englanders.—Personal Appearance of both Sexes.—Boys of Boston.—Custom respecting Mourning.—Morning Visits.

THE population of Boston is estimated in round numbers at 80,000, and, including its surrounding suburbs, 120,000. It is characterized by two marked features of difference from that of most other of the large cities of the United States, namely, its freedom from the usual admixture of foreigners, and the fewness of the African race. At New-York and Philadelphia are to be seen men of nearly all the nations of Europe, and large numbers of the children of Africa, but here there are few of either the one or the other. In New-York Jews are abundant, and in Philadelphia Quakers are still more numerous; but here there are neither of these two classes among the permanent residents, and even the occasional visitors of either race are "few and far between."

The New-Englanders, and the Bostonians in particular, pride themselves upon the purity of their descent from English blood, and trace up their origin to English families with all the pride of ancestry that characterizes our nobility and gentry at home. And yet, as a singular contrast to this, there is perhaps no city in the Union where the jealousy of the English is greater, or where the people feel more reluctant to admit the superiority of the English to themselves in any matter of art, science, literature, skill, language, character, or manners, accompanied with a sensitiveness to English censure which borders upon the ridiculous, and makes them keenly alive to what almost any other people would either disregard entirely, or look upon with comparative indifference.

The great mass of the population of Boston are engaged in commerce and trade, with a full proportion of the professional classes in law, medicine, and divinity, a larger proportion than usual of literary men, and a still greater number of opulent families, retired, and living at their ease.

Among the merchants there is a greater extent and solidity of capital than in the other large cities of America; among the traders there is a greater keenness and activity in business, so that the popular reason jocosely assigned for there being neither Jews nor Quakers here is, that neither of them could make a profit while dealing with a New-Englander. The medical men are considered to be better instructed and more experienced, the clergy are less theological, and study more the graces of elocution and oratory than elsewhere, and the ladies are regarded as more learned and critical than in the other American cities.

On all these points, the stranger who visits Boston, and especially if he remain in it for some weeks, and exercises his powers of observation on what is passing around him, will form his own opinions, though it may not be safe for him to express them freely or openly if they are not so favourable as he could wish. And yet, if the opinions of the inhabitants of Boston themselves, who have, of course, the best means of judging, were to be written down as the stranger hears them expressed, and subsequently repeated as his own, his testimony would be impugned as "libellous" and "ungrateful" by the very parties from whom he first received them, as they would not tolerate in another what they would freely promulgate themselves. In such a case it is safer to take the published views of persons competent to judge, addressed to the society itself, and challenging contradiction; and for this purpose I select the following passage from a recent volume of an American writer of deservedly high reputation, Mr. Orville Dewey, entitled "Moral Views of Commerce, Society, and Politics in America." In this work, when giving his admonitions on trading practices, he uses the following language:

"I ask if there is not good ground for the admonitions on this point, of every moral and holy teacher of every age? What means, if there is not, that eternal disingenuousness of trade, which is ever putting on fair appearances and false pretences; of the buyer that says, 'It is naught, it is naught,' but when he has gone his way, then boasteth; of the seller, who is always exhibiting the best samples—not fair, but false samples—of what he has to sell; of the seller, I say, who, to use the language of another, 'If he is tying up a bundle of quills, will place several in the centre of not half the value of the rest, and thus sends forth a hundred liars, with a fair outside to proclaim as many falsehoods to the world?' These practices, alas! have fallen into the regular course of the business of many. All men expect them; and therefore, you may say, that nobody is deceived. But deception is intended, else why all these things done? What if nobody is deceived? The seller himself is corrupted. He may stand acquitted of dishonesty in the

moral code of worldly traffic ; no man may charge him with dishonesty, and yet to himself he is a dishonest man."

It is not, however, against persons in this rank of life alone that the American author directs his denunciations. He sometimes takes a higher flight, and addresses the rich merchants, many of whom, it is known, had, during the recent commercial embarrassments, become bankrupt in fact ; but as there is yet no bankrupt law in the United States, much was left to their own individual honour in the settlement of their affairs. Many of these, without doubt, administered their effects as fairly as the most fastidious creditors could expect. Others, it is well known, acted differently, and of those he speaks thus :

"But there are bankrupts of a different character, as you well know. I do not know that any such are in this presence ; but if there were a congregation of such before me, I should speak no otherwise than I shall now speak. I say that there are men of a different character ; men who intend permanently to keep back a part of the price which they have sworn to pay ; and I tell you that God's altar, at which I minister, shall hear no word from me concerning them but a word of denunciation. It is dishonesty, and it ought to be infamy. It is robbery, though it live in splendour and ride in state ; robbery, as truly as if, instead of inhabiting a palace, it were consigned to the dungeons of Sing Sing."

There was perhaps less of this in Boston than in New-York, from three causes : first, that the operations of commerce in this city were not so wildly speculative ; secondly, that the parties who suffered loss had capital to sustain it ; and, thirdly, that the smaller circle of the community and the higher tone of morality made public opinion more influential in the conduct of those who stood before its tribunal. Yet even here it must be evident to any one who hears such conduct spoken of and commented on, that pecuniary laxity, approaching very nearly to dishonourable conduct, and sometimes to what a strict moralist would call fraud, is visited with greater lenity, and treated with greater indulgence, than it would be in any city of England by the same classes of persons engaged in commerce or trade.

In politics the people of Boston are divided, as elsewhere in the Union, into Whigs and Democrats ; and here, as everywhere else, each party misrepresents the opinions and defames the characters of its opponents in unmeasured terms. But, besides these two great divisions, as of the Tory and Whig with us, there is a division in the Whig party here between the Aristocratic and Democratic Whigs, just as in England between the Conservative Whigs and the Radical Whigs ; and here, as well as there, the distinction is chiefly regulated by the station of the individuals in society, or their relative degrees of wealth or poverty. A faithful picture of these two classes is given in the Boston Atlas of November 21, 1838.

The same spirit of distinction is actively engaged in marshalling

society into classes as to fashion and standing ; and nothing is more common than to hear observations as to certain people being "among the oldest and the first families in the city," and certain others as "people of whom no one knows anything." This is made of quite as much importance as the wealth of the individuals, though to this also considerable homage is paid, and the style in which a family lives is generally of more importance in securing for it the estimation of society than the merits of the individuals composing it. That this, however, may not be thought a prejudiced view of the case on my own part, and attributed to my English partialities, I will venture to transcribe, from a high American authority, and a Conservative organ of public opinion, the New-York Review for October, 1838, the opinions of its conductors in their examination of Mr. Dewey's work. They say :

"To the spirit of 'fashion,' its frivolity, inanity, and the essentially vulgar struggles engendered by it, the author administers some caustic and merited rebukes. Some of its special absurdities, as they are displayed in a country like this, are well exposed. The essential vulgarity of the fashion of mere wealth, of ostentatious equipage, &c., is a point which it is extremely salutary to insist on. But there is another aspect in which fashion often exhibits itself to the sarcastic observer in a light sufficiently amusing. How edifying to see the auctioneer asserting his superior gentility to the grocer, and the wife and daughters of the man who sells by the bale in Pearl-street refusing to associate with the wife and daughters of the man who sells by the yard in Broadway! Why, the London man of fashion would include them all alike in the grand category of 'vulgar people.' If it be said that the London distinctions of genteel and ungentle are equally fantastic and absurd—admit it—and what then? Why, it follows that a man's claims to social consideration should depend on personal attributes, and not on adventitious circumstances. It is the principles, the sentiments, and the habits that form the gentleman: If a person possesses the honourable principles, the refinement and courtesy of feeling and manners, which are essentially implied in the old genuine sense of the word *gentleman*, he is entitled to be received everywhere on a footing of social equality; and if, in addition to this, he is distinguished by superior ability, intelligence, cultivation, or other intrinsic accomplishments, he is the *superior* man, and society is *honoured* by his entering it, whatever be his external circumstances. And if you cannot always be certain of finding the *real* gentleman in the circles of the London aristocracy, notwithstanding the habits of education and other advantages of culture usually enjoyed there, surely as little can you be certain of finding it in the New-York mansion of ostentatious 'style,' built up by yearly toils among molasses hogsheads and cotton bags."

If it be said that these observations apply chiefly to the state of society in New-York, it may be added that they are still more applicable to the society in Boston, where the spirit of aristocracy in station, and of exclusiveness in associates, is much stronger than in any city of the Union; and where, consequently, the manners of the "best circles," as they are called, are colder than in New-York, more reserved than in Philadelphia, and more ostentatious than in Baltimore. Indeed, however much in advance Boston may be of

the three great cities named in its literary and scientific reputation, for which it is justly denominated "The Athens of the West," and however much higher may be its commercial credit, from the solidity of its capitalists and merchants, who are here called "princes," and her "traffickers" enumerated among the "honourable of the earth," it cannot be denied that each of the other cities are far in advance of it in the liberality of their feelings towards foreigners, in the hospitality of their intercourse with strangers, and in the cordial interchange of those social courtesies, which throw so great a charm over life, and kindle such pleasurable emotions by the reciprocal interchange of friendly greetings.

In New-York, in Philadelphia, and in Baltimore, while they are no strangers to large parties and costly entertainments, yet these are agreeably intermingled with social evening circles; and in the latter city especially they are accompanied with a warm-hearted cordiality of friendship, which makes the foreigner and the stranger feel as if he were at home. But in Boston, though everything in its exterior or material substance more resembles England than any other city of America; though the streets, the houses, the public buildings, the language, are all less marked by peculiarities, and therefore seem more like those of an English city than any other in the Union, yet English hospitality, in its genuine warmth and cordiality, is not nearly so general as in the other cities named, and their large and ostentatious parties but imperfectly supply its place.

That there is a keen perception of this striking defect in the society of Boston, in the minds of those who reside in the city itself, we had ample proof of in the fact that it was made the subject of public animadversion and reproof in a sermon preached by the Rev. Mr. Gannet, the colleague of the celebrated Dr. Channing, in the Federal-street Church, on Sunday, the 10th of November, 1838, Dr. Channing himself being present in the pulpit while his colleague pronounced the discourse. The main purport of it was to advert to the return of that season of the year when opulent families came in from the country to take up their winter residence in town, and to point out to them the folly of many of their prevailing habits and customs, among which these formal, frigid, and ostentatious parties were especially condemned; and to show how they might increase their own pleasures, as well as those of their friends, by a more simple yet cordial hospitality, which few or none now exercise.

The reason assigned for this inhospitality to strangers, especially from England, the country of which they seem most jealous, at the same time of their descent from which they seem most proud, is, that persons who have shared their hospitality while here have, on their return home, spoken or written ill-naturedly of them.

It is, indeed, this extreme sensitiveness to the opinions of others

which constitutes the principal moral or social disease of the country. The Americans cannot endure the idea that any nation should be regarded as their superior, and least of all England. They cannot consent that any stranger should receive more honour than a native citizen, and least of all an Englishman; and though they will receive with complacency all the incense of praise that can be offered, they can endure no reproof. I have already, in a former chapter, quoted the opinion of Mr. Biddle on this defect of his countrymen; I now subjoin the opinion of Mr. Latrobe:

"As long as the national temper maintains this morbid tone, I have become more and more convinced that it will allow the justice of no criticism; and that no individual, however honest and striving against prejudice, however sincerely regarding the people and their institutions with respect, however convinced that he who foment the ill-will and prejudice that may exist between the two countries ill serves his own, or the cause of humanity, or the nobler ends of travel or observation; I say, no one will write a book depicting the state of things in the United States as they are, with all their unavoidable crudities and anomalies, and give the public mind in that country satisfaction."

I firmly believe this to be true, and therefore expect my full share of censure for many of the truths which I have had the hardihood to utter; but it is because they *are* truths that I state them, and not because I have more pleasure in giving censure than in bestowing praise. The commendations which I have heartily and cheerfully expressed, of the country, its institutions, its cities, its philanthropic societies, and its noble undertakings, will sufficiently prove this; but as America, like every other country on the globe, has its weak parts and its blemishes, as well as its merits and its beauties, it is right that they who perceive them (and a stranger can often see more clearly than a native in this respect) should express themselves as freely, as to their nature and extent, as on every other topic; for by such impartial statements alone can a right estimate of any country be formed. But this freedom of opinion cannot be exercised in America, by stranger or native, without more risk of persecution than most men are willing to incur. On this subject I must again quote the New-York Reviewer. He says:

"This last exposure of the national character refers to 'pusillanimity' or moral cowardice; and this he justly thinks is one of the greatest dangers and evils to which we are exposed. 'Public opinion' is here a greater tyrant than anywhere else in the world, and the majority of the people are abject slaves to it. 'If a man edits a newspaper, his choice is between bondage and beggary.' In politics, he must go with his party, right or wrong. In religion, 'he knows that there are errors in his adopted creed, faults in his sect, fanaticism and extravagance in some of its measures.' See if you can get him to speak of them! See if you can get him to breathe a whisper of doubt!"

These are American gentlemen, scholars and divines, speaking of their own countrymen; for Mr. Dewey is a Unitarian minister
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of high reputation; and the editor of the Review, Dr. Hawks, is an Episcopalian clergyman, of ultra-Conservative politics, great learning, and high character. Their testimony is therefore unexceptionable, and I can bear witness to its perfect accuracy.

On the subject of newspaper editors, whose "choice" is said to be "between bondage and beggary," a word requires to be added. With few exceptions, the universal opinion of the American people themselves is, that the praise or censure of anything may be procured in the newspapers by interested parties for a few dollars, and that there is no influence more open to bribery and corruption than that of the newspaper press. The greater number of the editors are persons who embrace the occupation temporarily, and escape from it when anything better offers; and both with them and the proprietors, the "advertising interests" of the paper are of far more importance than its sale or its character. These interests are therefore carefully studied and sedulously cultivated, by submission to the wishes and feelings of the advertisers; so that there is scarcely any one who advertises largely, and patronises a particular paper, that may not get almost any communication inserted in it.

Another custom prevails which is worthy of remark. From time to time, some subscriber to the paper or some contributor to its columns sends the editor a barrel of oysters, or a basket of Champagne, or a haunch of venison, or a fine turkey; and the present is not only acknowledged in editorial type, but the donor is complimented for his liberality, and others are invited to follow his example. The constant repetition of such things makes them now too familiar to produce much effect; but their singularity must strike every stranger, as well as the frequent paragraphs, in which the habit of lending newspapers to others who ought to buy a copy for themselves is reprehended as a grievous fault, and paying a newspaper bill with punctuality is lauded as the highest virtue. But, that I may not speak of this practice without offering an example of it, I transcribe the following exquisite morceau from the column of "deaths" in the Boston Centinel of Nov. 5, 1838. If the newspapers of any country on earth can furnish a parallel to it, I have not seen it. Here it is, *verbatim et literatim*.

"DEATHS.—On Friday evening, at Watertown, Deacon Moses Coolidge, aged eighty-five. Funeral this afternoon at half past two o'clock, from his late residence. [Deacon C. has been a subscriber to the *Centinel* about half a century, and has always paid his bill punctually. Such a man deserves a crown of glory.]"

If this were meant as a joke, one would have thought that the solemn occasion of the death of a venerable friend, full of years and of honourable reputation, would have stayed such heartless witticism. If it were meant in earnest, it is in still worse taste and feeling; but in either case it shows, what, indeed, the whole course of the newspaper press in this country, with a few honourable ex-

ceptions, establishes beyond doubt, that with them profit is above principle, and gain the exclusive end and aim of all their labours.*

The remarkable predominance of scriptural, and especially of Hebrew names, in the designation of individuals, as seen in the public documents inserted in the newspapers, such as lists of candidates nominated for offices, records of births, marriages, and deaths, and advertisements of goods for sale, can hardly fail to strike a stranger as a peculiarity of New-England.

In personal appearance, the men of Boston have the same characteristics as those of New-York and Philadelphia. They are, in general, rather above than below the middle stature, with fewer fat or corpulent men than in England, pale complexions, generally straight hair, and a seriousness or gravity of countenance which in England would be called puritanical, but which here excites no observation, from its being so general. Every one is well dressed and remarkably clean, but with an absence of foppery or dandyism, which, though now and then seen in the young, is never witnessed in any man of middle age. They are not so hurried in their movements as in New-York, where everybody seems as if walking for a wager, or running a race with time; but their whole air is that of careful thoughtfulness and gravity.

There are not so many handsome women in Boston as there are in New-York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore; nor are the ladies of the North so gracefully elegant in their dress and manners as those of the Southern cities. Yet even here there are more handsome and pretty female faces than could be seen in the same amount of population in any town in England, though there are no such examples of striking and impressive beauty, or of "fine women," as we understand the term, as are occasionally found in Europe. The same deficiency in the roundness and plumpness of figure is observable here as elsewhere in America; the female forms, though slender, are never finely developed into shapes that would produce the beautiful rotundity and swelling outlines fit for statuary; while their complexions are almost uniformly pale, and their health extremely delicate. There is less effort at display in the dress of the ladies here than in the other large cities of the Union; but it is always of the best and latest fashions and materials, though more "quiet" and less obtrusive.

The causes of the pale complexions and ill health of both males and females, for it is far more general with both than with us, are no doubt many; but among the most prominent, I think, may be classed, first, the climate, in its sudden transitions from heat to cold, and cold to heat; secondly, the too great frequency of meals, and the too great variety of foods and sauces used to each; thirdly, the excessive use of tobacco among the men; and, fourthly, a defi-

* I expect to get my full share of condemnation for uttering this truth, but I shall not shrink from this, nor restrain its expression.

cient quantity of sleep, and of robust and vigorous exercise in the open air. There are four substantial meals in almost every house daily; breakfast at eight, dinner at two, tea at six, and supper at nine; and at each of these flesh meat or poultry is taken, grossly cooked, with greasy sauces, and a large admixture of sweetmeats and preserved fruits, as well as a great variety of nuts, of which both children and adults eat profusely.

In general, persons retire before midnight; but, whenever they sit up later at parties, they are still rung out of bed by the preparatory breakfast bell at seven; and their appearance then, as well as at other periods of the day, afford evidence that they have not slept sufficiently. As to exercise, although there are some few who ride, and many more who walk at stated periods every day, yet the vigorous exercise required for the young, in cricket, hoop, football, running, leaping, wrestling, &c., is almost unknown; and neither archery, nor any other exercise, except walking, is practised by females, so that their bodies are never so fully developed, their health so robust, their figures so beautiful, or their complexion so rosy, as would be the case if more exercise and more sleep were taken, and less food and less sweetmeats were eaten.

The same degree of paleness and languor is observable in the boys at the public schools, and this was adverted to in the proceedings of a public meeting held in Boston during my stay there, in the month of October, 1838, from the report of which the following extract may be given from the papers of the day. The chairman, after alluding to one or two other topics connected with the meeting, passed to the following:

"The other topic was that of over mental excitement. The children were stimulated too highly. Too much was required of the pupils. The intellectual labour began at too early an age, and it was enforced upon them too many hours in a day. Hence our children looked pale and feeble. They lacked robust frames and firm constitutions. This fault was not attributable to the committee nor to teachers, but to parents, who insisted upon the performance of tasks too arduous for the young mind. The physical education of the pupils had been altogether neglected. Germany paid judicious regard to this point. The result was seen in the health, and long life, and protracted labours of her scholars. How different it was with us! Our students were *thin* and *pale* to a proverb."

The boys of Boston are, notwithstanding, among the rudest and most turbulent that I ever remember to have seen; and, among other instances of their rudeness, I may mention the following. My youngest son, who accompanied us on our travels, being about thirteen years of age, had to go from our residence daily, at different hours, to take lessons from his various masters, who lived in different parts of the city; but scarcely a day passed without his being beset by some of the Boston boys, called after, and occasionally assailed with stones, as well as with coarse epithets; and for no

other reason that could ever be conceived or discovered, than that he was an "English boy," and was therefore regarded by them as an "interloper." Their conduct became at last so bad, that we were obliged to send a man-servant with him in going and coming; and even then they were often both assailed, especially when they met, as they did occasionally, a school just dispersed, where the number of the boys gave them additional courage for the onset.

Among the customs which prevail with the ladies is that of wearing mourning for a much longer period than in England, and of not receiving visits or going out to parties during all the time that their mourning is worn. Between persons not in mourning visits are interchanged occasionally; but even here the morning calls are among the heaviest taxes on time that strangers are called upon to pay, and many valuable hours are literally wasted every week by persons taking a long walk to call on those who have left their cards on some previous day: when, in nine cases out of ten, the answer is, "Not at home," or "Particularly engaged." As these answers are given to every one indiscriminately, without knowing who may call, no one can reasonably take offence; but it would be a great gain to all if these morning calls, which end in nothing but a waste of time, were abolished altogether, and cards of interchange or inquiry sent by the penny-post or by a messenger, who might go the rounds for the visiter, and save him the inconvenience and disappointment.

Notwithstanding these peculiarities, and, as they seemed to me in many cases, defects of society in Boston—and there are none which are not easily capable of reform and improvement—my sincere conviction is, that there is no city in the world, of the same extent of population, in which there exist more substantial wealth, honourably and industriously acquired, more mercantile integrity, more useful intelligence, more general comfort, more purity of morals, more benevolent efforts for the promotion of humane and charitable institutions, or more general knowledge, virtue, and happiness, than in Boston. There is no blemish within its precincts, whether of fraud, intemperance, profligacy, rudeness, or inhospitality, of which there are not similar examples, and often on a much larger scale, in the old and populous cities of Europe: and if the question could be reduced to figures, and set forth in accurate arithmetical proportions, I have no doubt it would be found that, in the proportion of crime, vice, or folly, to the whole population, Boston would have less of each than any other city with which it could be compared.

But as it is *not* perfect, and as its own inhabitants, by their very desire to have it so considered by foreigners, must evidently wish that it *should* be so, they ought to regard those as their best friends who, seeing what, perhaps from their position, they are themselves not so likely to perceive, should have the courage and the frankness to point out the defects which are capable of emendation, and thus

become the pioneers of improvement, since the very first step towards reform in everything is to be made conscious that there is really something that requires it.

CHAPTER XLII.

Last Sunday passed in Boston.—Morning Service at the King's Chapel.—Singular Union of Royalty, Episcopacy, and Unitarianism.—History of the Rise and Progress of King's Chapel.—Gift of Plate from the King and Queen of England.—Selection of Organ for the Chapel by Handel.—Church-rates levied by Dissenters on Episcopalians.—Anecdote of Captain Coram, Founder of the Foundling.—Alteration of the Church Liturgy by Unitarians.—Examples of the Changes made in the Service.—Prayer against Sedition and Rebellion retained.—Grounds alleged for revising the Liturgy.—Summary of the Service as at present used.—Description of the Edifice, the Vassal Monument.—Choir led by the present Mayor of Boston.—Unitarianism in the Ascendant and increasing.—Affecting Sermon of the Rev. Father Taylor.—Affectionate Exchanges of Farewell.—Last Evening passed in Boston.—Cordial Regrets and Anxieties of Friends.

THE last Sunday that we passed in Boston was agreeably and instructively occupied. Having heard on the preceding Sabbaths nearly all the principal preachers of the city in their respective churches, we attended, on the morning of this day, at the King's Chapel, to hear Dr. Greenwood; in the afternoon we went to the Mariner's Church to hear Father Taylor; and both were striking and impressive services.

The sermon preached by Dr. Greenwood was a beautiful and convincing discourse on the propriety of maintaining such of the external forms and duties of religion as are in accordance with scriptural authority, and the danger of omitting to keep up the continued observance of religious ordinances. It had, too, so remarkable a connexion with the history of the church in which it was delivered, and with all its surrounding associations, that some of its peculiarities will be worth detailing. This church is perhaps the only one in the world which recognises royalty in its name, Episcopacy in its ritual, and Unitarianism in its doctrine; being called, at the present moment, King's Chapel; using in its service most of the Book of Common Prayer and Liturgy of the Church of England, but introducing such modifications as to make it correspond with the belief and worship of Unitarians. The history of this church is as follows.

It was in 1689 that the first Episcopal church in New-England was built, on the spot where the King's Chapel now stands; and in July of that year an entry appears in the records to this effect, "*Laus Deo.* A memorandum of such honest and well-disposed persons as contributed their assistance for and towards erecting a church for God's worship in Boston, according to the constitution

of the Church of England as by law established." The names amount to ninety-six in number, and the sum subscribed by them was 25*l.* 9*s.*; but the cost of the church is subsequently said to have been 284*l.* 16*s.* It was built of wood, was very small, and wholly without pews, and it was not until 1694 that these were added to the church, at a cost of 85*l.*, which was raised by a subscription of fifty-three persons to cover the expense. As the chief part of the community in Boston then consisted of dissenters from the Church of England, this building received no favour from them, but was built principally by the contributions of the governor, Sir Edmund Andros, and the officials and dependants of the government.

In 1696 some presents were made to the church from England, which are thus entered in the records: "The Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer, and the Creed, which were drawne in England (that is, painted and gilded on tablets for placing over the altar), and brought over by Mr. Samuel Myles, in July, 1696;" and another entry stands thus: "Boston, 1697, then received of Mr. Myles two great silver flagons, and one sallver, and one bowl, and one civer (cover), all of silver, which was given to the church by the king and queen (William and Mary), and brought over by Captain John Foye. Received by me, Giles Dyer, churchwarden." The Bishop of London also sent a library of books, which was deemed at the time the best theological library in New-England, and has since been deposited in the Boston Athenæum.

Up to the period of King William's death, the church was called "King's Chapel;" but on the accession of Queen Anne in 1702 its name was changed to that of Queen's Chapel. In 1710 a new subscription was raised to rebuild the church, which was then enlarged to twice its original size, but was still constructed of wood only; a clock was given by the "gentlemen of the British Society" and an organ was presented by Mr. Thomas Brattle in 1713, and an organist sent for from London at a salary of 30*l.* per annum, with an allowance of 20*l.* for the passage of himself and his wife, and liberty to teach music and dancing! to help out his maintenance.

In 1714, when Queen Anne died, and was succeeded by George the First, the name of the church was again changed to King's Chapel, which it has retained ever since. In 1730 a curious condition of things arose, the Episcopalians of New-England being included in the taxation levied to build and support the churches of the dissenters. This appeared to them so great a grievance, that they sent home a memorial to the Bishop of London and a petition to the king, complaining of "the sufferings of the churchmen in this province," in being thus compelled to pay rates for the support of the dissenters; and some of those who refused to do so were imprisoned, and had their goods sold to raise the amount.

The dissenters, being the majority, insisted on their point and carried it, just as now, in England, the churchmen being the majority, act on the same principle and apply the same means; but in both cases, those who are compelled to pay feel it to be oppression, though those who exercise the compelling power call resistance to the impost rebellion.

In 1741, the wooden building being found to be greatly decayed, it was resolved to build a church of stone, which it was estimated would require 2500*l.* sterling; but it was not till 1749 that the foundation stone of the new edifice was laid; and it may give some idea of the imperfect notions then prevailing as to the liberty of the press, to state, that a Boston newspaper, called "The Independent Advertiser," for describing the somewhat pompous ceremony observed on this occasion with wit and sarcasm, was afterward "suppressed;" especially, says the record, "as it had long been made use of for a vehicle of scandal and disaffection to the government." A curious anecdote is mentioned as illustrative of the temper and character of some of the best friends of their race. As the expenses of this new stone church were found to be much greater than was anticipated, wealthy men, favourable to the Episcopal religion, were applied to for aid by letter, and among the number of these was the celebrated Captain Coram, the founder of the Foundling Hospital in London; "Mr. Barlow Trecothick, who was then in England, waited on him; and, though graciously received, had no sooner mentioned the purpose of his visit, than he was obliged to listen to a burst of the most passionate reproaches against the vestry of King's Chapel, for slighting a present which Captain Coram had formerly made them of a piece of land. All the explanations of Mr. Trecothick seemed not to cool the old gentleman's rage, who at last flatly told his visiter, with an oath, 'that he knew it was in his power to serve the church very much; but that, if the twelve apostles were to apply to him in behalf of it, he would persist in refusing to do it.' " This, says Mr. Trecothick, in his communication to the committee, I thought a *definitive* answer, and so I took my leave. The aid required was, however, obtained from other sources, and the whole expense of the church, which amounted in the end to nearly 10,000*l.* sterling, was defrayed.

In 1756 a new organ was obtained from England, at a first cost of 500*l.*, and 137*l.* expenses. It is the one that is now used in the church, and is viewed and heard with great interest, as there is good reason to believe that it was selected for the church by the great master, Handel, who, though then blind—for he died in 1758, and was blind eight years before his death—tried it by his own hands before its purchase. After the death of George the Second and accession of George the Third, an additional service of plate was sent out in 1772, with a complete new set of pulpit furniture, as a present from the king; the whole amount of the silver thus

presented to the church being 2800 ounces, and the gift of three separate sovereigns; so that, from the beginning to the end of its history, this church, built chiefly by the contributions of Governor Andros and his officials, used always as the church of the government, with a special state-pew for the governor and his family, and patronised and assisted by bishops and kings, may be regarded as the peculiar favourite of episcopacy and royalty combined.

It is the more remarkable on this account, that this very church should be the first in which the doctrine of the Trinity should be abjured, and that, while retaining the Liturgy of the Episcopal or Church of England service, it should make open profession of Unitarianism. At the Revolution in 1776, the gilded crown that stood on the centre of the organ, and the two gilded mitres that stood on either side, were removed by the populace, and all signs of homage to royalty were abolished. The name of King-street was changed to State-street, Queen-street to Court-street, and King's Chapel to Stone Chapel, by which it was for a long time called; but the anti-royal fever has so far subsided, that for many years past the church has resumed its ancient name, and is called King's Chapel by its own minister and congregation as well as by others.

The next step was the alteration of the Liturgy, which was undertaken in 1783 by Dr. Parker, and completed in 1785, according to the alterations made in the same by the celebrated English divine, Dr. Clarke; these changes being chiefly the rejection of the Athanasian Creed, and the omission of all the passages that either recognised or adverted to the doctrine of the Trinity; this amended Liturgy was adopted by the vote of the congregation, and has ever since formed the Book of Common Prayer used by them in their worship. "Thus," says the present pastor of this church, Dr. Greenwood, who is also its historian, "the first Episcopal church in New-England became the first Unitarian church in America."

The principal alterations made in the service are these: Instead of "Gloria Patri" at the end of each of the Psalms, "Gloria be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost," the sentence used is this: "Now unto the King eternal, immortal, invisible, the only wise God, be honour and glory, through Jesus Christ, forever and ever. Amen." In the "Te Deum," after the words "the Father of an infinite majesty," the subsequent passages are expunged, and these substituted: "The Creator and Preserver of the Universe, the God and Father of Jesus Christ our Saviour; the enlightener and sanctifier of men; all happiness proceedeth from thee, and to thee all gratitude and adoration are due. We bless thee for sending into the world thy beloved Son. When thou gavest him to deliver man, it pleased thee that he should be born of a virgin;" and the rest to the end is as in the old version. The Litany is much abridged, and many of the expressions modernized. Instead of the prayer, "O God the Son, Redeemer of the world," &c.,

the language used is, "O God, who by thy Son hast redeemed the world;" and instead of "O God the Holy Ghost, proceeding from the Father and the Son," the language used is, "O God, who by thy Holy Spirit dost govern, direct, and sanctify the hearts of thy faithful servants." Instead of "All the sinful lusts of the flesh, the world, and the devil," the words used are, "all inordinate and sinful affections, and all the secret allurements of this sinful world;" but what seems remarkable is, that these words are permitted to stand unaltered as in the original: "From all sedition, privy conspiracy, and rebellion, from all false doctrine, heresy, and schism, from hardness of heart, and contempt of thy word and commandment, good Lord, deliver us."

In the preface to this amended Liturgy, the very persons who pray thus fervently to be delivered "from all sedition, privy conspiracy, and rebellion" say, "The late *happy* revolution here hath forever separated all the Episcopal societies in the United States of America from the Church of England, of which the king of that country is the supreme head;" and on this ground they think themselves justified in "making such alterations in their service as the exigency of the times and occasions hath rendered expedient." Of the whole work, when these changes were made, they thus express themselves: "The Liturgy contained in this volume is such that it is supposed no Christian can take offence at it, or find his conscience at all wounded in repeating it. The Trinitarian, the Unitarian, the Calvinist, the Arminian, will read nothing in it which can give him any reasonable umbrage. God is the sole object of worship in these prayers; and as no man can come to God but by the one mediator, Jesus Christ, every petition is here offered in his name, in obedience to his commands."

The present pastor, Dr. Greenwood, at the close of his interesting History of King's Chapel, from which most of the facts here selected have been gathered, thus acknowledges the present views of his church: "With regard to our religious opinions," he says, "we indeed differ widely, in some respects, from those who once met for worship in this temple. Of these it is sufficient to say, that we believe them to be true and scriptural, and hold them to be precious. Though we have no objection to the name or office of bishop, when used in a scriptural sense and exercised in a scriptural manner, yet we claim to be interpreters of the meaning of Scripture, on that as well as on other topics, for ourselves. And though we refuse not to be designated by the term Episcopal, yet, so long as Episcopalians deem the doctrine of the Trinity to be essential, and an assent to it indispensable, we, as Unitarians, cannot join with them, nor can they receive us; and our communion with our Unitarian brethren of the Congregational order must be much more intimate than with them. But we retain and prefer the ancient Liturgy, simplified and altered in conformity with our opinions; and

in this respect differ from Congregationalists and others, who use no regular form of public worship. In unity of spirit and the bond of peace we desire to join our brethren, and in righteousness of life to be reconciled unto God, through his Son Jesus Christ."

The interior of the church resembles those built in London about the time of Queen Anne and George the First. The order of architecture is Corinthian, and the finely-carved capitals of the fluted pillars that support the aisles and gallery, the lofty pulpit, with its crimson damask draperies and velvet cushion, the railed-in altar and communion-table, with the tablets of the Decalogue, Creed, and Lord's Prayer, the high and roomy pews, all lined with green baize, the old-fashioned organ chosen by Handel, the marble monuments and tablets around the walls, and, indeed, everything connected with the aspect of the interior, reminded us more of home than anything we had seen in any place of worship since we left England. The lady who accompanied us was most anxious to complete this illusion by having "God save the King" played by the organist—who was himself an Englishman, and "nothing loth"—after the congregation had dispersed, and while we were walking round with the minister to see the monuments of the chapel; but we satisfied ourselves with her kind intentions.

Among the monuments is one to Samuel Vassal, a merchant of London, finely executed in marble, and containing an inscription, which, for its historical interest, is worth being copied at length, and it will accordingly be found in the Appendix.* It will be sufficient to say here that he was the first person in England who refused to pay the unconstitutional tax on tonnage and poundage in the year 1628, for which his goods were seized and his person imprisoned by order of the Court of Star Chamber. He was chosen as member of Parliament for the city of London in 1640, and in 1641 the Parliament voted him 10,000*l.* as compensation for his injuries; but, like others who have had their claims acknowledged but not redressed, his family never received anything beyond the honour of this vote and resolution; though his father was one of the gallant patriots who fitted out at his own cost two ships of war, one of which he commanded in person, and joined the royal fleet to oppose the Spanish armada.

Among the many interesting peculiarities of King's Chapel, and its Episcopalian service by a Unitarian minister and congregation, the choir deserves to be mentioned as one of the most perfect, though by no means the most extensive in Boston; and the organ chosen by Handel is well sustained by exquisite voices admirably attuned. This choir is led by the Mayor of Boston, Mr. Elliott, who is a good musician, with an excellent voice, and who takes a pleasure in conducting this part of the service; so that, instead of finding him in what was formerly the governor's pew, where, ac-

* See Appendix, No. X.

cording to the old custom of colonial times, and of very recent date in England, the mayor might be found, surrounded by the aldermen in furred robes, and protected by the gilded mace as the emblem of his authority, he is to be seen in Boston in front of the choir, in the organ gallery, leading the singers, and performing his duty ably and efficiently, and this, too, without losing in the slightest degree the respect or esteem of his fellow-citizens.

No one can be long in Boston without perceiving that Unitarianism, if not the religion of the numerical majority, is that of the opulent and official classes who compose the aristocracy of the city. Mr. Webster the senator, and several of the members of Congress, as well as of the local Legislature, are Unitarians. The president and professors at Harvard University are nearly all Unitarians. The bench and the bar contain a majority of Unitarians, and the medical profession adds largely to their numbers. The mayor and many of the municipal officers are Unitarians, and the great bulk of the more wealthy merchants. It is said here, indeed, that, with whatever religion men begin life, when they get very rich and withdraw from active business they become Unitarians. The reason assigned for this is, first, that they feel themselves relieved from a great deal of the troublesome duty of frequent prayer-meetings, private conferences, confessions of experience, and other searching and disagreeable inquisitions, to which, as communicants of other sects, they would be occasionally subject, but from which, the moment they become Unitarians, they are free; secondly, that, whatever may be their peculiar views of religion as to its mysteries and doctrines, they are unrestrained in the fullest indulgence of them, without being chargeable with heresy, as independence of judgment is allowed to all, without inquiry or responsibility; and, thirdly, that Unitarianism being the fashionable or aristocratical religion of Boston, all those who feel that their wealth and station give them a claim of admission to this circle, and many who are ambitious of so doing before their claims can be well established, find the profession of Unitarianism a safe and easy passport to circles to which they would otherwise find admission more difficult.

From all these causes combined, and others, perhaps, operating unseen, it is beyond a doubt that the Unitarians here have the greatest number of churches, the most learned and eloquent preachers, of whom the justly-celebrated Dr. Channing is at the head, and the most fashionable congregations. They are likely to increase, because the reasons already enumerated are sure to be in constant operation to bring additions to their numbers, while few or no conversions are made from their ranks to other sects; and the rising generation of Unitarians appear, from all that is seen and known of them, to wear the restraint of religious opinions and observances even more lightly than their parents, and to get more and more "liberal," as it is termed, in both.

In the afternoon we went for the third time to hear Father Taylor, at the Mariner's Church, and were more deeply affected by his peculiar and touching eloquence than before. There were some recent circumstances which made the occasion one of deeper importance than usual, and these gave him more than his accustomed share of energy and feeling. On the Friday preceding I had gone with Father Taylor, at his request, to visit, with his family and my own, the "Mariner's Home;" to see the accommodation there provided for the comfortable boarding and lodging of seamen, with a view to take them from the temptations by which they are surrounded on all hands when landing from their voyages; and to inspect the store of clothing, prepared of the best materials, put together by the excellent workmanship of seamen's wives and daughters, and furnished at the cheapest rates; and nothing could be more complete than the whole.

On this very day, however, it happened that 500 men had been paid off from the United States frigate and some sloops-of-war forming the Mediterranean squadron, which had returned from a three years' absence. Large as the number was, however, thus thrown upon the stream at once, there were enough of grogshop keepers and other interested harpies to decoy them nearly all into their dens; and, except the few that were rescued from their fangs by the Mariner's Home and the Seaman's Home, they were nearly all intoxicated before night. Some were robbed while thus unconscious, by those who made them so for this purpose; and on the following day many were without a dollar, though on the average they had come on shore with from 100 to 200 dollars each. Being thus stripped of all their money, and reduced to a state of stupid insensibility by drunkenness, they were, on the following night, seen choking up the streets and lanes by the wharves, so as actually to impede the passage, and the night being intensely cold, the thermometer at 6°, the watchmen were all employed in taking them up from the ground, many of them stiff with cold, and piling them up one on the other in heaps in the watch-houses, to prevent their being frozen to death! This was the fate that befell the brave defenders of their country when they returned to the land of their nativity, and this was the treatment they received at the hands of their fellow-citizens!

On the following day, Monday, the second election was to take place for the representatives of Boston, and the question at issue between the two sections into which the Whigs had split was, whether the regular Whig ticket, as it was called, which contained in it no less than seven dealers in intoxicating liquor out of 36 candidates, and nearly the whole of the remainder were for an unrestricted trade in ardent spirits, should be elected; or whether the Amory Hall ticket, as it was called, on which were 36 men all in favour of upholding the recent license law, which prohibits the sale

of spirits in a less quantity than 15 gallons, should be elected in their stead.

Father Taylor, bearing in mind these two circumstances, took for his text the sixth commandment of the Decalogue, from the 20th chapter of Exodus, "Thou shalt not kill," and made a most powerful and thrilling discourse. He walked up and down the platform just as a sea-captain walks the quarter-deck; behind him were seated half a dozen fine-looking seamen; and the winding stairs ascending to this pulpit on each side, as well as the altar-place beneath it, were filled with seamen also.

In the centre, or body of the church, the whole space was filled by seamen only, and the side-seats below and in the gallery were occupied by the public generally, the whole number exceeding 1000 persons. He addressed the seamen chiefly as his brethren, and told them that in the face of this commandment, "Thou shalt not kill," many of their shipmates and messmates had been murdered, cruelly and in cool blood murdered, some of them body and soul, by the poisonous drink* administered to them by guilty and avaricious hands; and after first poisoning, and then plundering them, they had left their victims to perish in the streets! He asked whether they would look on with indifference while these scenes were passing around them; and he urged them to rally round the polls to-morrow, and defeat the dealers in the death-inflicting liquid, by preventing their return as members of the Legislature, and electing the friends of temperance, who are the friends of humanity, in their stead.

His discourse was one of the most thrilling and heart-piercing that it was ever my lot to hear. The big tear rolled down his furrowed cheeks when he spoke of the sufferings of his brother mariners as though they were his own children; while the robust and manly frames of the seamen, to whom he addressed his discourse, alternately swelled with sobs and melted with tears as they heard his touching tones, and looked upon his beaming and benignant face. The land part of his congregation were as deeply affected as the seamen, and at times there was not a dry eye to be seen in the whole assembly.

If the 500 victims of the avarice and cruelty of the spirit-sellers could have been present, they would have fallen down and worshipped him; for he seemed like an Angel of Light sent to save them from sinking in the gulf that yawned open its frightful abyss to receive them; and if the voters of Boston who were indifferent to temperance, or legislators of the world who scoff at all attempts to promote it by legislative means, could have heard this powerful and searching appeal, they would have been overwhelmed with shame at their past indifference, and never have rested afterward till they had done all within their power to atone for past neglect.

* See Appendix, No. XI.

At the close of the service, though it lasted till it was quite dark, every one seemed reluctant to leave; and after many friendly greetings, warm prayers, cordial benedictions, and mutual interchanges of tears and good-wishes on either side—for the two families, Father Taylor's and my own, seemed knit by this bond of common sympathy for the sons of the ocean into one—we bade a difficult and painful, yet affectionate farewell, and hoped we might meet again.

I felt so much exhausted by the excitement of the day, that I was disposed to pass the evening alone; but this was not permitted. The fellow-boarders with whom we had been, living for the past eight weeks—our first week in Boston having been passed at the Tremont Hotel—were unwilling that we should separate without passing the evening together in social intercourse; and as their acquaintance had grown up to friendship in several, and to great cordiality in all, we were unable, as well as unwilling, to refuse it. Mrs. Putnam, the lady at whose house we lived in Pearl-street, had made her dwelling so much more like a home to us than any boarding-house in which we had lived since we had been in America, and everything around us, indeed, had been made so agreeable by the kindness of all under the same roof, that, though we had seen but little of Boston hospitality to bind us to its general society, we really found ourselves more strongly attached to our home-circle than we had thought of till we came to part.

From some three or four of the families of Boston—whom I should be proud to name, were not the feeling of repugnance to all public mention so strong among persons in private life in this country—we had received very kind and friendly attentions, and particularly from one family, whom we had the pleasure to know and to receive in England. But, with these few exceptions, nothing could be more distant, cold, and frigid than the general intercourse we maintained with the mass. This, however, was not from want of respect or indifference; for few persons had ever before enjoyed so large a share of public favour, public attention, and public commendation and compliment, as I had the honour of receiving from the thousands who attended my lectures, and who, at their close, often came to express individually their high respect and sincere admiration, mingled with expressions of deep gratitude for pleasure received, and warm congratulations on the amount of good likely to be effected, by the diffusion of the information and opinions which these lectures conveyed.

But of the private hospitalities of Boston we neither saw much ourselves, nor could learn of its exercise towards others; and as we heard on all hands that it was not the general custom to invite guests, except at crowded and ostentatious parties, where 400 or 500 persons are sometimes asked to houses not large enough to accommodate agreeably half the number, we had seen sufficient of

discomfort and irrationality of such thronged masses as these, fatal as they are to any continuous enjoyment of intellectual intercourse, to make us very reluctant to join them.

As we sat around the family fireside for the last evening of our stay, amid the many expressions of regret at our being about to leave, and anticipations of the blank that the loss of our party of three would create for a time, all hoped that we should return again to a community which they admitted was cold of temperament and slow of approach, but steady in attachment when once known.

All this was more agreeable to us than it would have been to leave no regret behind; and, after sitting up later than usual, our circle separated for retirement with a cordial interchange of best wishes for our mutual welfare, and hopes of a speedy reunion in the same spot.

CHAPTER XLIII.

Journey from Boston to Providence.—Lectures delivered here.—Churches and Pulpits occupied.—Animated Public Discussions on the Question, "Is it right, expedient, and necessary to use Legislative Influence for the Promotion of the Temperance Reformation?"—Absence of any written Constitution.—Still governed by the Royal Charter of Charles II.—Area, Statistics, and Population of the State.—Manufactures, Commerce, and Shipping.—Legislature.—Governor, Senators, and Public Officers.—Judiciary.—Proportion of Representatives.—Rotten-borough System of unequal Representation.

ON Monday, the 26th of November, we left Boston for Providence, and were about two hours performing the journey by the railroad. The cars were commodious, and well warmed by stoves; but the company were more than usually variegated, and among them there were many under the influence of strong drink. These, probably, had been occupied in the second election for Boston, which was held to-day; and the anti-temperance party having been again beaten, many of their disappointed voters may have sought to drown their mortification in drink. The weather was cold, the thermometer in the open air being at 10°; and as the ground was covered with snow, the road appeared dreary and monotonous. We reached Providence about four o'clock, having left Boston at two, and repaired to the City Hotel, where we took up our abode.

We remained in Providence a fortnight, and passed a more than usually agreeable time there, from the pleasant acquaintances we had the happiness to form, and the cordial and friendly hospitalities that we enjoyed during our stay. I was chiefly occupied in the delivery of my lectures on Egypt; but, as there is no public room or hall in Providence capable of accommodating more than 400 persons, we were obliged to seek the use of such places of

worship as were to be had. We obtained for this purpose the grant of six separate churches in succession, in different parts of the city, and these were filled with audiences varying from 500 at the first to about 800 at the last, increasing regularly every night. A seventh lecture was given gratuitously for the benefit of the funds of a chapel, called, after the founder of Providence, Roger Williams's Chapel, and this was still more fully attended than any of the preceding, and added a handsome sum to their treasury.

The fullest and most animated meetings I attended in Providence were, however, two held for the purpose of public debate on the following question: "Is it right, expedient, and necessary to seek legislative aid to promote the temperance reform?" These meetings were held in two other churches, one on each side of the river; making, therefore, nine churches in all, from the pulpits of which I gave my lectures on Egypt and Palestine, and delivered temperance addresses, during my short stay in Providence. The audiences at the public discussions on the temperance question, being admitted free, were very large—2000 at least, and some thought 2500 and 3000—but the two churches in which they were held were the largest in the city, and they were completely filled. The result of the discussion was in favour of the position that it was the duty of the Legislature to put every practicable restriction on the sale of intoxicating drinks; and this was carried by a large majority.

My evenings were therefore all fully occupied in Providence, and during the mornings of every day I was busily engaged in seeing all the various institutions, manufactories, and other objects of public importance in the town, and interchanging visits with the inhabitants, who took the greatest interest in my inquiries, and assisted them in every way.

The most remarkable feature in the history of Rhode Island is, that it possesses no written constitution for its local government, and in this respect it differs from every other state in the Union. It is still governed by the charter of Charles the Second, which was granted in 1663, the provisions of which are so liberal that little inconvenience, it is asserted, has been hitherto experienced from the want of such a constitution as is possessed by the other states; nor does there appear the slightest desire on the part of any of the population to annul the royal charter, or substitute a written constitution in its stead.

Rhode Island is the smallest of all the states in the Union, its length from north to south being only 48 miles, and its breadth 42; its area, therefore, is about 1500 square miles, or 960,000 acres in the whole. It is bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts, on the west by Connecticut, and on the south by the Atlantic. Its surface is agreeably diversified; being hilly and rocky in the northwest or interior, and generally level in the southeast or towards the sea.

The soil is better adapted to grazing than tillage, and while the quantity of grain raised is but just sufficient for the consumption of its own population, its chief agricultural wealth is in its cattle, sheep, butter, cheese, and the produce of its abundant gardens. Its bays and rivers furnish a great variety of excellent fish, and iron, copper, and limestone are produced by its mountains; its climate is deemed so mild in winter, and cool in summer, that valétudinarians from all parts of the Union visit its seacoast in the warm season, and its interior in the cold, in order to avoid the extremes of both, which are felt particularly in Maine, New-Hampshire, and Massachusetts.

The present population of Rhode Island is estimated to be only about 100,000; but, like every other part of the Union, this state has steadily increased in its numbers. The following tabular view will make this apparent:

In 1730	17,935	In 1800	69,122
1748	34,128	1810	76,931
1755	46,636	1820	83,059
1774	59,678	1830	97,399
1790	68,825	1840	100,000

As the census is decennial, the present number can only be matter of estimate; but that it considerably exceeds 100,000 no one doubts. By the first enumeration, when, according to Callender, "there was, by the king's order, an exact account taken of the number of souls in the colony," the proportions were as follows: Whites, 15,302; Negroes, 1648; Indians, 985; total, 17,935. In 1830, the proportions were the following: Whites, 93,621; Negroes and coloured persons, 3678; Indians, 0; total, 97,399.

It is chiefly for the extent of its manufactures, in proportion to its area and population, that Rhode Island is distinguished as a state. There are at present about 130 cotton manufactories, eight bleacheries, and four calico printing establishments, employing an aggregate capital of nearly 10,000,000 dollars, engaged in the manufacture of cotton only, besides cloth manufactories, iron works, and other branches of internal industry. The commerce of the state is also considerable, and its shipping exceeds 50,000 tons. In no part of the United States has banking been carried to such an extent as here, there being in this little state upward of fifty banks, with an aggregate capital of nearly 10,000,000 dollars. One of the oldest mercantile establishments in the United States, Messrs. Brown and Ives, still carry on business at Providence; and the firm has been one of the most prosperous, as it is now one of the most opulent, in the Union.

The Legislature of Rhode Island is composed of a House of Representatives, containing seventy-two members; a Senate, containing ten members; a lieutenant-governor and a governor, who are each members of the Senate, the governor presiding. This

Legislature is chosen by freeholders and residents only, the qualification of the voters being the *bona fide* possession of freehold property, or real estate, to the value of 130 dollars capital, or producing an income of seven dollars per annum. No higher qualification than this is required for the members of either branch of the Legislature. Rhode Island is the only state in the Union in which the qualification by freehold estate exists. The House of Representatives is chosen semi-annually, so that there are two elections for members in each year, one being in April, the other in August. The advocates for annual Parliament will be glad to learn, perhaps, that no inconvenience whatever is felt by this still more frequent choice. The governor and senators are chosen annually, so that their term of office is of double the length of the former. The same qualification enables an elector to vote for each branch of the Legislature; the only difference being this, that the representatives are sent from particular towns, and are voted for only by the resident freeholders of such towns; while the governor, lieutenant-governor, and senators are voted for by the whole of the freeholders throughout the state, as these represent no particular town, but the general interests collectively. The voting is in the usual manner of putting a printed ticket, containing the names of the candidates for whom the vote is given, into a ballot-box at the poll; but the law requires that the name of each voter should be written at full length on the back of his vote-paper for identification; so that, though it is vote by ballot, it is not secret voting; yet from this no inconvenience is felt, as the independent condition of the voters makes them perfectly regardless of the good or ill will of those opposed to them in politics.

The governor and senators are elected every April, and the representatives every April and August. The Legislature meets four times in the year, the first Wednesday in May and June, and the first Wednesday in October and January, when they assemble at Providence, Newport, Kingston, and Greenwich by turns, thus realizing Mr. Cressett Pelham's idea of a perambulating Parliament, which he once made a motion to introduce into England.

The governor does not possess the power of the veto, but sits merely as the president of the Senate, and never votes there except when the numbers are equal, and he is then called upon to give a casting vote. All laws, therefore, that are agreed to by both houses pass, as matter of course; and the governor is bound to ratify and act upon them. Without the agreement of the majority of both houses no act can become law; but sometimes both houses meet in grand committee, as it is called—that is, they unite their numbers, and sit together as one assembly—when the majority of the whole united number decides the questions in debate.

The salary of the governor is the lowest in the United States, being only 400 dollars, or about 80*l.* sterling, per annum. The

lieutenant-governor has only 200 dollars. The secretary of state has 750 dollars and fees; the treasurer 450 dollars, and the attorney-general his fees only. The members of both houses are paid only one dollar fifty cents, or about six shillings sterling, per day, while skilful mechanics and manufacturers readily earn two dollars per day.

The judiciary power is vested in a Supreme Court and Court of Common Pleas for each of the five counties of which the state is composed, namely, Bristol, Kent, Newport, Providence, and Washington. The chief-justice of the Supreme Court has a salary of 650 dollars; the two associate justices 550 dollars each; and the five judges who preside over the Courts of Common Pleas in each of the five counties have no salaries, but are paid by fees.

The proportion of representatives which each city or town should send to the House of Representatives was first fixed by the royal charter of Charles the Second in 1663. This was subsequently modified by an act of the Colonial Legislature not long afterward, but since that time no change has been made; and, accordingly, there is a sort of "Rotten-borough System," which has necessarily sprung out of this state of things. For instance, Newport, which was formerly the largest town of the state, sent twelve representatives, and Providence, which was then a small town, sent only four. At present, Newport contains about 8000 inhabitants, and still sends twelve members, while Providence, with its 20,000 inhabitants, sends only four; no more, indeed, than Portsmouth in the same state, which has only 1500; and many new towns, that have sprung up since this act was passed, now more than a century ago, have no representatives at all.

The unrepresented parties cry out, of course, for "Parliamentary reform;" but, as it was in the mother country, and as it still is, and probably ever will be there and everywhere else, those who *have* the privileges from which others are excluded are not willing to admit their fellow-citizens to a participation. They contend, as the anti-Reformers of England do, that these anomalies and inconsistencies "work well," and need no reform; and, therefore, they set their faces against any innovation. As this party comprises most of the wealthy persons in the state, it is highly probable that there will be no alteration in the charter, no written constitution, and no change in the representative or elective system for many years to come.

CHAPTER XLIV.

Description of the City of Providence.—Division of Aristocracy and Fashion, east and west End.—Private Dwellings, Shops, Hotels, and Boarding-houses.—Public Buildings, Statehouse, the Colleges.—The Arcade, Churches, Structures, and Sects.—Literary Institutions, Brown University.—Munificence of Mr. Brown, a Merchant.—Government and Discipline of the Colleges.—Attendance at an Exhibition of the Students.—Comparison with the Exhibition at Cambridge.—Library of the University.—Manning Hall.—Athenæum.—Franklin and Historical Societies.—Great French Work on Egypt.—Musée Française.—Encouragement of Literature and Art.—Admission of Ladies.—Opening Address.—Quaker College.—State or public Schools.—Private Schools.—The Drama.

THE city of Providence is very advantageously and agreeably situated at the head of the tide-waters of Narraganset Bay, an arm of the sea coming up from Newport and Rhode Island, and forming a deep inlet from the ocean about thirty miles inward from the general line of the coast. At the spot where the town of Providence stands, this inlet of the water is so narrow as to look like a river, and it is generally called, indeed, Providence River; but this is incorrect, as it is an arm of the sea. It extends, however, on the north and east of the town, till it meets the River Seekonk, having two bridges, one called India Bridge, and the other Central Bridge, passing over its narrowest parts. On the north and west of the town it goes on till it meets the Woonasquatucket River and the Mooshasuck River, whose united waters run by or through the centre of the town. The bridge uniting the opposite banks is not more than 100 feet in length, and nearly of equal breadth; it is constructed of wood, with a central way for carts and horses, and two broad side-paths railed off for foot-passengers. Like all the maritime cities of America, therefore, Providence presents an extensive line of frontage to the water, surrounded as it is, on three sides, with these two arms of the sea, so that its accommodation in wharfage is ample for the greatest number of ships it can employ; and vessels of all classes, from 50 to 500 tons, come up opposite the town, and find excellent room and complete shelter.

The plan of the city is as regular as the uneven surface of the area over which it is spread would admit. The eastern half of the town, taking the division at the bridge across the stream in the centre, is extremely hilly, the lateral streets ascending from the wharves to the summit of the hill being steeper than any in Boston, and steeper even than Holborn Hill in London. On the more elevated portions of this hill, and throughout its whole extent, are built the spacious mansions of the older and more opulent families. The governor's official residence is in this quarter, as well as the College or University, and the Athenæum. Most of the banks and insurance offices are on this side of the water, and the greater num-

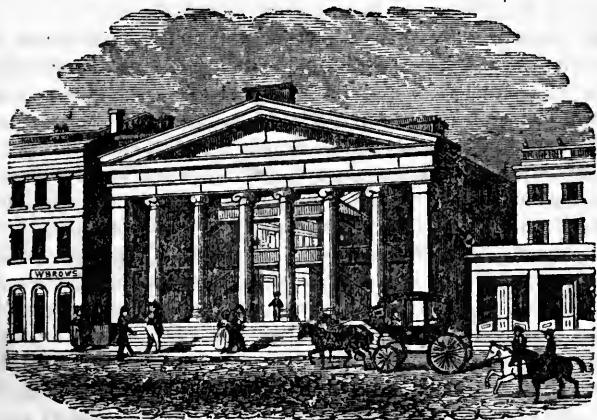
ber of the "aristocracy of the city," as they are called, live here. The western half of Providence is on a more level area; and, owing to greater facility in obtaining building sites on moderate terms, this has been the portion in which the increase of dwellings has chiefly taken place of late years. The streets are here more regular in their laying out, are generally broader and better paved; but there are not so many large and substantial dwellings as on the other side, though there a few, and those greatly on the increase. An "aristocracy" is said to be growing up here also; and it is alleged that something like a spirit of rivalry exists between the inhabitants of the old town and the new—or the up-town and the down-town—or the dwellers on the hill and the dwellers in the plain—just as in England, in the town of Lincoln especially, there is as marked a line of division between the families above hill and the families below hill, as there is between the city residents and the west-end dwellers in London.

The greater number of the buildings in Providence are of wood, painted white, which gives the town a very bright appearance when seen from an eminence or from a distant point of view: and as there are several lofty white spires, a square brown Gothic tower with pinnacles, and a bluish lead-covered dome rising from the churches on both sides, with an agreeable admixture of ships' masts and flags in the central stream, it presents an animated and striking appearance. Here, however, as in most of the large cities of America, the more recent structures are built of stone or brick; and wooden dwellings are gradually becoming superseded by buildings of more substantial materials. The shops are inferior in their general appearance to what might be expected in so old and so opulent a city as this undoubtedly is, for its size; and no attention appears to be paid to decoration or alteration. Of hotels there are four or five, but among them, the latest built, the City Hotel, in the western division of the town, is the only one possessing spacious or well-furnished rooms, while even there the table is what in England would be called wretchedly ill-furnished; and of the boarding-houses, the half dozen of the highest repute that I went to see were dirty and disorderly in the extreme.

Of the public buildings of Providence there are not many that are either large or beautiful. The Statehouse, in which the Legislature assembles, is like an old country mansion in England, with a short avenue of old poplars leading up to it from the lower part of the town, and a common entrance to its other front from the street above: its interior is as plain as its exterior; it is built of brick, washed over with a whitish colouring. The University consists of two piles of building, not uniform with each other, and of a plain style, with a fine Doric hall and portico between them; but the projection of this latter edifice too much in front, and the contrast of its brown stone with the bluish wash that covers the col-

lege-fronts on either side, give to the whole an incongruous appearance. The Athenæum, a small building below it on the side of the hill, is in better taste, being a simple Doric hall, with portico, built of granite, and in excellent proportions.

The Providence Arcade is not only the finest of its kind in New-England, but in all the United States, and, I think I may add, in England; for neither the Lowther nor the Burlington Arcade, in London, is so handsome or so commodious as this. It is built of granite, with three separate stories, containing 82 shops or ware-rooms in the interior, forming a ground-floor and two tiers of galleries above, the passages around which are by balconies, railed in with iron fencework, and the ascent to this is by geometrical staircases of granite, the whole being lighted by a glass roof from above. The length of this Arcade is 225 feet, the breadth 80 feet, and the height 72 feet; and it stretches from Wybossett-street on the one front, to Westminster-street on the other, each front having a portico of six granite columns of the Ionic order, each column in one entire stone of three feet diameter, and 25 feet in height, the whole costing about 130,000 dollars.



There are 20 churches in Providence, of which six are Baptist, three Congregational or Independent Calvinists, two Methodist, two Unitarian (one called the Westminster Church), two Episcopal, one Quaker, one Universalist, one Catholic, one Swedenborgian, and two African for coloured people, one called the Zion Methodists, and the other the Abyssinians; the five last named worship in very humble buildings. As structures, the principal churches are fine buildings, with lofty spires, especially the First Baptist, the two Unitarian, one of the Episcopalian, one of the Congregationalist, with its chaste portico and dome, and one of the Episcopalian, with

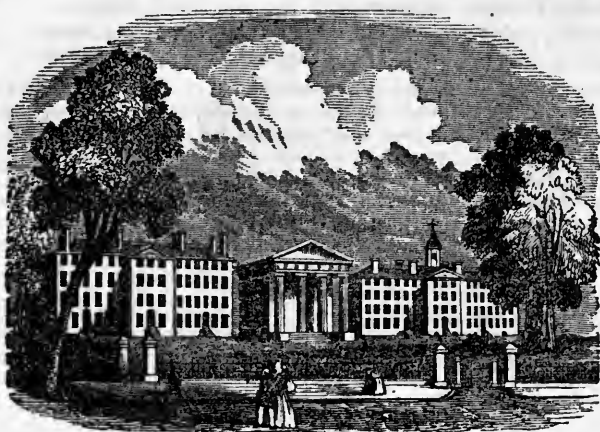


its square Gothic tower and pinnacles, all of which add much to the beauty of the town. In their interior arrangement, the features of simple elegance and great comfort are united: cushioned pews, carpeted floors, warm stoves, and commodious and handsome pulpits or platforms, with good organs and excellent choirs; and the greatest order and propriety prevails during the whole service.

Of literary institutions, the Brown University takes the lead. This was originally founded at Warren, a small town about eight miles distant from Providence, in 1764; but in 1770 it was removed to this city. It is now called "Brown University," from its principal patron, Nicholas Brown, the head of the firm of Brown and Ives, merchants of this city, and the oldest firm now existing in the United States. When originally transferred and established here, it was called the Rhode Island College; and Mr. Manning, its original founder, erected the one pile of buildings, called University Hall, which is constructed of brick, is four stories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide, containing 51 rooms for officers and students, with a chapel, library, and museum.

In 1822 Mr. Brown built the second pile, called Hope College, which, instead of being made uniform with the former, as it might so easily have been, was only 120 feet long and 40 feet wide, though it is four stories high, and contains 48 rooms for officers and students. A space was left between these two piles for some future central building, of which these two might form the wings; and this, too, has been filled up by the munificence of Mr. Brown, who is still alive, though beyond his eightieth year; but, instead of making a bold and appropriate centre, which might have united these wings, and, with a little more expense, have brought the dis-

jointed parts into one harmonious whole, the space is occupied by an oblong Doric edifice, after the model of an ancient temple, with its portico projecting considerably beyond the line of the general façade, and open spaces left between it and each of the other piles.



The incongruity of style and order in these three parts of the same institution is still farther increased by the central building being of a fine brown stone, and the two side ones being of brick, covered with a bluish wash. Still, the lofty eminence on which the whole are placed, the open space of ground by which they are surrounded, their size, utility, and the munificence of their patron, whose name they bear, make them conspicuous and popular among the public buildings of the city.

Mr. Brown not only built the pile called Hope College, and the Doric temple called Manning Hall, but he devoted 100,000 dollars to the endowment of professors; and he still continues to make occasional grants of large sums for the improvement of the institution, and has communicated his intention to bestow still more upon it at his death. In this, however, he has not followed the usual example of wealthy men in such cases, by leaving all to be done till he is in his grave; on the contrary, he has done much, and continues to do more, while living; so that he has large returns of interest for his outlay in the pleasure it must afford him to witness the rise, progress, and perpetual growth of the institution he has so honourably and munificently befriended.

The government of the University is vested in a Board of Fellows, consisting of 12 members, of whom eight, including the president, must be Baptist, and a Board of Trustees, of 36 members, of whom 22 must be Baptist, five Quakers, five Episcopalians, and four Congregationalists. This mingling of persons of different sects is found to work admirably well, by preserving unlimited

toleration and uninterrupted liberality and harmony between all parties. This, indeed, has been the chief characteristic of Providence ever since Roger Williams first planted it, and raised the standard of religious freedom for all sects. On this subject, the following striking passage from the Historical Discourse of John Callendar, published a hundred years ago, is so remarkable as to deserve to be transcribed. He says:

"Our fathers established a mutual liberty of conscience when they first incorporated themselves; this they confirmed under their first patent, and at the Restoration they petitioned King Charles the Second 'that they might be permitted to hold forth a lively experiment, that a most flourishing civil state may stand, and best be maintained, and that among English subjects, with a full liberty in religious concerns; and that true piety, rightly grounded on Gospel principles, will give the best and the greatest security to sovereignty, and will lay in the hearts of men the strongest obligation to true loyalty.' And the king was pleased to make them a grant, by which every person may freely and fully have and enjoy his own judgment or conscience in matters of religious concernment, behaving himself peaceably and quietly, and not using this liberty for licentiousness and profaneness, nor to the civil injury or outward disturbance of others. This is the language of the royal charter granted to Rhode Island by Charles the Second: and Callendar proceeds to say, as one knowing well the state and condition of the society in which he lived, 'This happy privilege we enjoy to this day, through the Divine goodness; and the experiment has fully answered, even beyond what might have been expected from the first attempt. The civil state has flourished as well as if secured by ever so many penal laws, and an Inquisition to put them in execution. Our civil officers have been chosen out of every religious society, and the public peace has been as well preserved, and the public councils as well conducted,' as we could have expected had we been assisted by ever so many religious tests. It has been no uncommon sight to see gentlemen of almost every religious persuasion among us, sitting on the same bench of magistrates together. And we may always expect to see it while that principle prevails, that the surest way to preserve and enjoy our charter privileges is so to divide the posts of honour, trust, and profit among all persuasions indifferently; and, in general, to prefer those gentlemen, of whatever religious opinions they are, that are otherwise best qualified to serve the public and adorn their stations, and to suffer no one religious sect to monopolize the places of power and authority."*

The acting officers of instruction in Brown's University at present are, the president, Dr. Wayland, three professors, and two tutors; the number of students are about 200; and the whole number educated in it since its foundation exceeds 2000. The annual commencement is on the first Wednesday in September, and there are three vacations in the year: one in September, of four weeks, one in January, of six weeks, and one in May, of three weeks. The average expense of each student is about 120 dollars per annum. I was present at an exhibition of the senior class, of which the following was the programme:

* Coll. of the Rhode Island Hist. Society, vol. iv., page 161.

Music. 1. Horatio Latina : 2. A life of action most favourable to Virtue : 3. The influence of the Moral Feelings on the Intellect : 4. Originality. Music. 5. The Literature of the Spanish Arabs : 6. The tendency of Social Revolutions : 7. Character of William Wilberforce. Music. 8. Ultimate Triumph of Free Principles : 9. Political Aspect of Great Britain : 10. Singleness of Pursuit : 11. Action of Genius. Music.

The exhibition was held in the upper floor of Manning Hall, a well-proportioned and well-lighted room (the lower floor of which is devoted to a library), before an auditory of about 300 persons, 200 of whom, at least, were ladies, from families resident in the town. Mr. Brown, the benefactor of the University, was present; and having, notwithstanding his extreme age, attended all my lectures, he recognised me on entering, gave me a cordial reception, placed me in one of the chairs laid out for the professors, and introduced me to most of the officers of the institution as they entered. The president took his seat in a sort of pulpit or enclosed desk, on an elevated stage, as at Cambridge near Boston, but did not wear the University cap, as President Quincy did at Harvard. The music was performed by an excellent band of wind instruments belonging to the town, the performers occupying an orchestra in a gallery over the vestibule or entrance. The students wore black silk gowns, but no caps: they were a handsome and gentlemanly body of young men. Their orations were, in general, well conceived and well delivered, especially the Latin oration, and the discourse on the literature of the Spanish Arabs.

The most remarkable composition, however, was that in which "the political aspect of Great Britain" was attempted to be depicted. It would have been highly relished at Oxford, in England, as it was the most Conservative speech that I had yet heard in America, though Conservatism is so generally spread among all the mercantile and wealthy portions of the community. In this address the Conservatives of England were lauded to the skies, and the Radicals denounced as the ruthless destroyers of the most ancient and venerable institutions, seeking to destroy, in a single hour, what it had taken ages to construct. "Queen Victoria, in her virgin innocence," said the speaker, "is supposed to be in imminent danger of suffering the fate of the lamented Marie Antoinette; and Sir Robert Peel and Lord Stanley may be regarded as the great champions of the British Constitution; while Lord Brougham and Mr. O'Connell are but agitators, and leaders of a faction against the peace and stability of the state." All this appeared to afford great pleasure to the audience, to whom it seemed to me to be the most acceptable piece of the day; and it was evident that professors, students, and auditors sympathized deeply in the sentiments it conveyed; so much is Conservatism, or anti-Democratic principles, in favour with the great majority of the upper classes, or more fashionable circles in America.

The library of the college contains about 10,000 volumes, and is every year increasing; three other libraries, belonging to other literary institutions, are all kept within the walls of the University, and amount to about 8000 volumes more; while the philosophical apparatus for experiments and illustrations in scientific lectures is very ample and complete. Among the books, which I was permitted to inspect, having been taken through the library by the classical professor, there appeared to be a very fair proportion of the more solid and learned in each department of study, and, at the same time a full supply of the more popular works, with an excellent variety of the best of the scientific publications of Europe. In the library on the ground-floor of Manning Hall is a well-executed full-length portrait of Mr. Brown, after whom the University is named, and it is a faithful likeness.

Among the peculiarities of pronunciation which I remarked among the professors and students was that of pronouncing the first *a* in the word Arab as it is pronounced in *Aaron*, and the first *a* in drama as it is in *Draco*; but, while they made the *a* narrow in these two words, in which the English use it broad, they reversed this sound in two other words, pronouncing the word patron as if it were written *pat-tron*, and fabric as if it were written *fab-bric*. The word "only" was pronounced as if written *unly*, and the word "been" as if written *ben*; this I observed also at the Harvard Exhibition, and, indeed, it is common among the best educated persons in America. Among the less educated or refined it was common to hear the expression "he *show* me a letter," instead of "he *showed* me a letter;" and "the sailor *dove* to the bottom" instead of "*dived* to the bottom" of the sea. The phrase "as lief" is constantly substituted for "as soon" or "rather;" as "I would *as lief* see you in the morning as in the evening," and "I would *as lief* not go out at all." "He warn't there" is commonly used for "he was not there;" "it warn't the custom" for "it was not the custom." "A rugged man" is a term used for "a robust man;" and sometimes the phrase "rugged health" is used for "robust health." When a question is asked of another, and *after* the answer is given, it is common to hear the exclamation, "Oh! *do* tell—I want to know," *after* the information has all been given. Though it has so very opposite a meaning, it seemed to me to be as often used as another phrase in England, when people are surprised by any piece of news, or affect to be so, just as ridiculously exclaim, "You *don't* say so!" All countries, indeed, have their peculiar modes of expression, which will not bear a critical analysis; but this ought to make them all more charitable towards each other in judging of these peculiarities, for no nation and no class are entirely free from them.

Next to the Brown University, the Atneæum of Providence deserves especial mention as a literary institution. In the erection of

this, the munificence of Messrs. Brown and Ives was again apparent. They made an offer of a suitable piece of land for the edifice, and the sum of 6000 dollars towards the building, and 4000 dollars for the purchase of books, provided an equal sum of 10,000 dollars should be raised by subscription among the inhabitants in the space of three months. This was accepted, and the sum of 20,000 dollars was soon procured, being double the amount stipulated. The work was immediately commenced. The plot of land given was 140 feet in length and 120 in breadth; and in 1837 the building was begun, and was completed in 1838.

The building is a Grecian Doric edifice, after the model of a temple, of 48 feet front and 78 feet in depth, with fluted columns of 14 feet each in one piece; the height of the walls is 31 feet, and the roof is covered with zinc. In the interior the arrangements are simple and commodious. The basement story is occupied by the Franklin and Historical Societies. The first has an extensive collection of models and philosophical instruments, as well as an interesting collection of curiosities. The latter has an excellent collection of books, papers, and records. The upper and principal story is occupied by the Athenæum Society. On each side the entrance is a square room, one of which is the reading-room for periodicals and journals, the other for the librarian's office and committee-room. The library, or principal room beyond this, extends the whole length of the building, in two subdivisions, and is fitted up in the purest taste. The whole cost of the building, including the furniture, fencing, &c., was about 20,000 dollars, and the books about 20,000 dollars more.

The property is now divided among about 400 shareholders: the price of a share is fixed at 15 dollars, to enable persons of the humblest class to become purchasers; and the annual subscription, after the purchase of the share, is fixed at five dollars each. The library contains at present upward of 10,000 volumes, selected with great care and good taste by an agent employed in England to purchase them. In addition to these, there is a splendid copy of the great French work on Egypt, which belonged to the unfortunate Prince Polignac, and was sold in Paris with his effects subsequent to his banishment to the fortress of Ham. It was purchased at the sale by an American gentleman then in Paris, and repurchased by Messrs. Brown and Ives, and eight other residents of Providence, and presented as a donation to the Athenæum.

Another splendid work, "The Musée Française," was purchased by six other residents of Providence, and presented also as a donation to the Athenæum. There are no towns in England, of similar population to that of Providence (20,000), where such an institution could be so rapidly got up and organized, and be so munificently endowed by its citizens, as this. It is well wor-

thy, therefore, of being held out as an example for imitation in Europe: for this is one of the departments in which the Old Country may with advantage learn the lessons taught, and the examples set her, by the people of the New.

To show that such acts on the part of the more opulent citizens are duly acknowledged by those for whose benefit they are performed, and that there is not only a full appreciation of the importance of such gifts, and a becoming gratitude for their bestowal, but also a clear perception of the future benefits they are to achieve for their posterity, I subjoin the following extract from the last report of the directors, for the present year, 1838, when advertising to the splendid works already named:

"In recording these liberal donations to the Athenæum, all of them in the department of antiquities and the fine arts, the board cannot but notice with pleasure the evidence thus given of an increasing desire among us to foster a taste for the grand and the beautiful; for studies and pursuits whose effect is to polish and humanize society; to liberalize and elevate the general mind of the community; to abridge the limits of a dull utilitarianism; to weaken the hold of that base passion for accumulation which so deadens the loftiest impulses of the spiritual being; and to waken up and call forth genius in some of its loveliest and sublimest forms. May it not be hoped that within these walls will yet be collected a gallery of painting and sculpture, and that our alcoves and cabinets will yet contain constantly-growing contributions in all which can lift the soul from the grave of this world's materialism into the fairy domains of the ideal and the poetic, where men of the divinest gifts have always delighted to revel, that they might not only be rapt themselves, but imbody, for the admiration and culture of others, in the speaking page, the canvass, or the marble, their noblest conceptions. Here let there be gathered, largely and liberally, for the successive generations who are to inhabit our city, whatever hath been chanted or sung by the great 'choir of ever-enduring men.' While we treasure up, as they are produced, the best fruits of the mind and genius of our own day, here too should be garnered the past; remembering that

'Stores of the truly great
Have all one age, and from one visible space
Shed influence! They, both in power and act,
Are permanent, and time is not with them,
Save as it worketh for them, they in it.'"

It may be mentioned as another good feature of this institution, that ladies are admitted as shareholders, subscribers, and visitors, as well as gentlemen; and that, besides having the accommodation of books at their own homes, for the library is a circulating one, they frequently honour the reading-room with their presence; several very beautiful women were engaged there at the time of my visit.

An excellent institution for education is provided by the Quakers of this state and neighbourhood. It is within a mile of the Brown University, and is called "The Friends' Boarding School." It belongs to the body composing the yearly meeting of the "Friends" in New-England, and is devoted to the education of their children. It has at present nearly 200 pupils, of whom

about 130 are male and 70 female. These are boarded and educated under the general care of a superintendent, and the particular and special attention of five male and four female teachers.

Public schools were not begun on the plan of state assistance till the year 1800; there are now in the town seven primary schools and five grammar schools, with one for the children of Africans. In the whole state there are 350 public schools, towards the support of which the state pays the amount of 10,000 dollars a year, and the rest of the expenses are borne by the community. Besides these, there is in Providence an excellent private establishment, called "The Green-street School," at which there is a competent body of teachers in the useful, the classical, and the ornamental departments; and at this, too, boys and girls are educated together without inconvenience. I ought, perhaps, to have said "masters and misses," for this is the phraseology of the country, of which every day furnishes instances in the newspapers and in ordinary conversation; but the following will be an example:

DANCING ACADEMY.—Mons. P. Guigon, from Boston, has the honour to inform his friends and other ladies and gentlemen of Providence, that his dancing academy is open at the City Hotel. Days of reception and instruction for young ladies, *misses and masters*, every Wednesday and Saturday afternoon, from 3 to 6 o'clock

The places of public amusement in Providence are few in number, the grave taste of its inhabitants not encouraging such undertakings. The theatre is but rarely opened, and is then but very little frequented. During our stay at Providence, Miss Shirreff, from England, performed for three or four nights; but, though sustained by several attractive American performers, and by Mr. Wilson, an English singer, the audiences were very thin, and composed mostly of strangers passing through the city on their way to and from New-York and Boston. The public taste of the country is certainly not favourable to dramatic entertainments, nor even to music, unless it be the choral sacred pieces performed at the Sunday evening concerts in Boston; and it is doubtful whether these would be so well attended on any other evening of the week; but, being the only entertainment available on the evening of that day, and offering an agreeable substitute for the church and the chapel to a great number who wish to go somewhere and have nothing else to do, they have, of course, a monopoly of the night, and are, therefore, more fully attended than they would otherwise be.

CHAPTER XLV.

Municipal Government.—Benevolent Institutions.—Commerce and Manufactures of Providence.—Statistics of Manufactures.—Shipping.—State-prison.—Population of Providence, White and Coloured.—Classes, Professions, Trades, and Pursuits.—Anniversary of "Thanksgiving Day" in New-England.—Religious Services, Festivity.—Public Amusements, Theatre, Balls.

THE municipal government of Providence is vested in a mayor, a board of six aldermen, and a common council of twenty-four members, elected from six wards. The town was not incorporated as a city until October, 1831, only seven years ago, though it has long been the second town for size, population, and wealth in New-England, having no superior in these respects except Boston.

The aged and infirm, with the few poor that are found in the state, are comfortably taken care of in an establishment called "The Dexter Asylum," a large brick building of 170 feet long, forty-five feet wide, and three stories in height, which was erected in 1828.

The commerce and manufactures of Providence are considerable, and continually on the increase, the city having local advantages for both which are duly appreciated and adequately sustained, and on these subjects the following statistics were obtained.

There are four cotton factories, three worked by steam and one by water power, and these employ a capital of about 500,000 dollars. They contain 16,272 spindles and 322 looms. They give employment to about 500 persons in the factories, and about 1000 in various ways out of the establishment, and expend about 250,000 dollars annually in wages. They consume about 700,000 lbs. of cotton, spin about 500,000 lbs. of yarn, and weave about 2,000,000 yards of cotton cloth in the year, mostly of the finest qualities, to the estimated value of about 500,000 dollars.

There are also three extensive bleacheries, one of which alone employs a capital of 250,000 dollars, and gives occupation to about 300 persons, at the annual wages of 75,000 dollars; and the cloth bleached and finished at these establishments, from various parts of the state, sent here from the neighbourhood for that purpose, amounts to about 5,000,000 lbs., or nearly 20,000,000 of yards.

There are eight iron foundries and ten machine manufactories, employed chiefly in making machinery for the cotton mills. These employ a capital of about 400,000 dollars, and give occupation to between six and 700 persons. They work up annually about 1500 tons of iron and steel, and construct machinery to the value of about 500,000 dollars in the year.

In addition to these there is an establishment for the manufacture of steam-engines, one for steam-boilers and brass foundries, with others for working in tin, sheet-iron, copper, and brass. There is also a manufactory of stoves, stove-pipes, and grates for the anthracite or hard coal, which is the produce of this state, and used exclusively here, and which requires stoves of a peculiar construction to burn it in. Added to these there is a manufactory of files, which are made here quite as well as in England, though not so cheap.

An extensive manufactory of combs is carried on here, one house alone making combs to the value of 12,000 dollars a year. There are thirty goldsmiths' and jewellers' shops, employing a capital of more than 200,000 dollars, occupying about 500 persons, and making articles in their departments to the value of nearly 400,000 dollars a year.

A factory has recently been established for making hats out of wool, by an invention that has received a patent, and its operations are rapidly and extensively increasing; there is another for making candle and lamp wicks, and cotton webbing, a manufactory of sperm oil, another of linseed oil, a mill for grinding dye-stuffs, and four large dyeing houses.

A glass manufactory has also been recently established, both for the making and cutting of flint glass; and this, which has now been in operation about seven years, already employs a capital of 100,000 dollars, gives occupation to nearly 200 persons, and sends out goods to the amount of at least 200,000 dollars per annum.

It is said that, in addition to these and many other smaller manufactories of leather, boots and shoes, soap, candles, hats, &c., carried on within the city of Providence, the capitalists of the town have upward of 3,000,000 dollars invested in cotton, woollen, and other manufactories scattered over different parts of this small state, for which agencies exist in the town itself.

The registered shipping of Providence amount to 25,000 tons; there are eight insurance companies, with an aggregate capital of 800,000 dollars; and twenty banks, with an aggregate capital of 5,000,000; while the canals, railroads, and steamboats passing from this city to other parts are believed to have invested in them a capital of 20,000,000 dollars more.

The State-prison for the criminals of Rhode Island is seated on a point of land projecting into the cove opposite the northern part of the city of Providence. It had only been completed within the last month, and cost 75,000 dollars. Previous to the erection of this prison, the criminals were confined in the county jails, without work, in separate apartments or several together, according to the accommodations of the prison or the convenience of the jailer, the only separation constantly maintained being that of the criminals from the debtors.

Fortunately, the criminals are very few, there being only five at present in confinement, one of whom is for murder, and the others for aggravated stealing. They are all males, four being white and one coloured person. The murderer, who is a white man, is confined for life, and the others for periods of from one to three years. The murderer was an intemperate drinker, and two of the others were also in the habit of being intoxicated; but all of them could read and write.

The discipline of the prison is after the Pennsylvania system of solitary confinement, as practised in the Penitentiary of Philadelphia. The prisoners have not yet been furnished with regular and constant occupation, owing to the illness of the warden, as it requires a special examination of each man's capacities to ascertain the kind of labour best suited to his case; but, though they have only been a month in confinement in this new prison, they express a strong desire for employment, and evince great gratification at the assurance that it shall be furnished them regularly, as they have been within the last ten days occasionally; some of them having made up the sheets used in the prison, and evinced the sincerity of their wishes by the pains which they took about the work, and the neatness of its execution.

They are treated with great kindness, and are found to be perfectly docile and tractable, as far as can be known from their expressions and deportment yet exhibited. Free intercourse under the license of the inspector (who interposes no restrictions not necessary to safe custody) is directed by law, for moral and religious instruction; and public religious exercises are allowed on Sundays, in the corridor of the prison, care being taken that the prisoners do not communicate with or see each other. The law also requires that each cell shall be furnished with a Bible, at the expense of the state, and that one hour in each day shall be allowed to the prisoners to read it. They have also been furnished with tracts, and it is the wish and intention of the warden and inspectors to adopt all suitable means for promoting the moral reformation and improvement of the prisoners under their charge.

The population of Providence is estimated at present at 20,000 persons. Of these there are 1000 coloured people, a much larger proportion than is found in Boston; but these are here, as everywhere else in the United States, a subordinate, and, to some extent, a secluded or proscribed race; as even in the city of Roger Williams, founded on the principle of "entire religious freedom in religious concerns," the coloured people are obliged to sit in a certain part of the gallery, separated from the whites, in every place of worship.

Of the white population, the great majority are engaged in trade; but from the extensive operations of the commercial and manufacturing establishments of Providence, there are, perhaps, more

wealthy men here, in proportion to the whole number of the community, than in any other city of the Union. There are also many opulent individuals who have retired altogether from any active participation in business, though they employ their capital in the various establishments of banks, insurance offices, and manufactures in the state; but their families live like the leisure class in the older countries, who have withdrawn altogether from trade.

Besides these, there is a happy admixture of learned and professional men, in the heads of the University, the judges, senators, representatives, and members of the legal and medical professions, which, from its being the seat of learning and of legislation, reside in or near Providence, and, from their numbers and influence, give an elevated tone to society, and a right direction to the public taste.

The result of this is, that while there are an abundance of spacious and elegant mansions, richly and tastefully furnished, their occupiers are not, as in many cities, engaged in ostentatious displays of their wealth by costly and crowded entertainments; but there is a sobriety and rationality in their social parties which makes them peculiarly agreeable. The hours are early, the refreshments simple, and the topics of conversation intellectual; and while their hospitality is on the most generous scale, it is deemed no favour, but merely the performance of a duty, to make strangers feel among them as if they were at home. We passed some of our afternoons and evenings during our short stay here in circles of the most intelligent and agreeable description; and had more hospitality shown towards us in the twelve days we passed in Providence than during all the many weeks we were in Boston; such is the difference between places so near each other, though both are large cities, and each the capital of a state.

The annual Thanksgiving Day, which was fixed for the 29th of November in most of the New-England States, was observed during our stay in Providence. It has been the custom, ever since the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, to set apart a day for the expression of public thanks to the Almighty for the blessing enjoyed by the country, and the period chosen is usually during the season of autumn. When the exact date is fixed by the governor of the state, he issues his proclamation, recommending the general observance of the day, as one of religious expression of gratitude, and of festive meeting with kindred and friends; and custom has now so long sanctioned this observance, that its return is looked for by all classes, but especially by the two extremes of society, the very old and the very young, who enjoy most the festive character of the day with considerable expectation and anxiety. During the whole of the day all the shops were closed, and business was universally suspended. In the forenoon public worship was held in all the churches, and a sermon appropriate to the occasion preached in each. At dinner, all the members of the several families met at

the festive board, and the tables were loaded with more than their usual weight; turkeys of the largest size, hams of the greatest weight, and pumpkin pies of the most ample dimensions, were to be seen on the tables of the poorest; and even the rich, who fared sumptuously every day, had an extra dish or two on this. The evening was variously occupied; and as the places of public amusement are generally thronged at the close of this day, there was a benefit at the theatre, where Miss Shirreff and Mr. Wilson from England performed, with several stars of lesser magnitude from the United States; and a "Thanksgiving Ball" was held at the City Hotel, where we resided, the announcement of which is sufficiently curious to be given entire.

"THANKSGIVING BALL.—MESSRS. Seamans and Wyman respectfully inform the ladies and gentlemen of Providence, that they will give a ball at the City Hotel on the 29th inst. Dancing to commence at half past six o'clock. Tickets 1 dollar, to be had at bar. Carriages furnished. *Gallants' List at the Bar.*"

The "Gallants' List" here referred to was that of the gentlemen by whom the ball was to be attended, the inspection of which might probably lead persons to determine whether they would go to it or not. The ball was very full and very animated, and dancing was kept up to a late hour.

It was on this evening of Thanksgiving Day that the friends of temperance in Providence thought fit to hold their first meeting in Dr. Tucker's church, to discuss the question, "Is it right, expedient, and necessary that legislative aid should be sought for to promote the temperance reform?" at which meeting I was especially invited, and announced to take a prominent part, to maintain the affirmative of this question in the debate. The meeting was crowded to excess, 2000 being the estimate of some, and 2500 of others; and many were unable to obtain admission for want of room. This discussion was attended by many of the first families in Providence, as well as by many persons from the country, who took advantage of this day of leisure to come in several miles from the surrounding neighbourhood. The whole was animated and agreeable, from the orderly manner in which the debate was conducted, and many additional friends were secured by it for the temperance cause.

CHAPTER XLVI

Last Visits made in Providence.—Green-street School.—Character.—Address.—Bleaching Establishment.—Steam Company's Cotton-mill.—Average Wages of Males and Females employed.—Absence of married Women from Factories.—Superior Condition and Appearance of all engaged.—Causes of this suggested and explained.—Lotteries for aiding the Funds of the public Schools.—Fewness of Dramshops and Pawnbrokers.

THE last visits I made in Providence were to the Green-street School, the Bleaching Establishment, and the Steam Company's Cotton-mills, with all of which I was highly gratified.

At the Green-street School we found a beautifully classic and perfectly commodious building, in the form of a small Doric temple, exclusively devoted to the business of education, and in which no one slept or resided. The surbasement, or ground-floor, was appropriated to the primary school, where children of both sexes, from four to seven years, were taught by an English lady perfectly well qualified for the task. On the upper and principal floor were seated about 100 young ladies and gentlemen, from seven to sixteen years of age, occupying separate ranges of desks on each side of the room. The hall was spacious, lofty, well-warmed, and yet sufficiently ventilated, beautifully carpeted, and resembling a drawing-room rather than a school. At the head of the hall was a handsome elevated platform, with the superintendent's desk, behind which was a small but well-selected library of useful and entertaining books, for the perusal of the pupils in the intervals between their lessons. Leading off from the upper end of the hall were two private parlours, used as recitation rooms, to which several classes retired when they were ready to go through their exercises or recitations before their respective teachers, which they were thus enabled to do without being interrupted themselves, or without their interrupting any of the other pupils of the school.

I had an opportunity of inspecting the books used, seeing the exercises of some of the pupils, and reading their school journals; and they all left on my mind a very favourable impression of the system of education pursued, and of their proficiency under it. The hours of attendance were from nine to twelve, and from three to five; and the healthy appearance of the pupils bore evidence to their not being overtaken. The boys were, in general, more ruddy than we had observed them to be in Boston; and the girls, though all of them more delicate in their figures, and generally of softer and more beautiful features than would be seen among the same number of English young ladies of the same age, had yet a greater glow of healthiness on their cheeks, and less of languor in

their eyes than we had remarked at the other institutions for female education which we had visited elsewhere. At the urgent request of the principal, or head master of the school, Mr. Fuller, I delivered a short address to the pupils, congratulating them on the privileges they enjoyed, and urging them by every consideration of regard for their own happiness and the general improvement of mankind, of which it might be hoped some of them were destined to become the future instruments, to avail themselves of these privileges while they were in their possession, and before the period of youth should have passed away, never again to be redeemed.

In our visit to the bleaching establishment, I was accompanied by one of the principal proprietors, and shown, unreservedly, every part. The building in which the works are carried on is of great extent, standing on the edge of the open piece of water called the Cove, which lies opposite to the upper or north end of Providence. The capital invested in it is about 250,000 dollars, and the number of men employed exceeds 200. Unbleached cotton cloths from all parts of the state are sent here to be bleached. The process commences with putting the cloths into large vats filled with boiling water, and the proper admixture of alkali to produce the whiteness required. The cloths are afterward washed and rinsed in several successive waters till made perfectly pure and bright; they are then dried on racks exposed to currents of air, and are then mangled or calendered on hot metallic rollers, under great pressure. The next process is to submit them to an operation called "beetling," under which, by the stamping of perpendicular pillars on the surface of the cloth, it is made to appear like Irish linen. The piece is then folded into its proper width, and the whole placed in a hydrostatic press; after which it is done up with the greatest neatness and elegance for the packages in which the finished work is returned to the original manufacturer.

The reputation in which the domestic manufactures of America are held all along the coasts of South America and in the islands of the Pacific, for their great strength and durability, as compared with English goods of the same class, is just like the estimation in which Indian muslins, calicoes, and chintses were held in England about twenty years ago, as compared with Glasgow and Manchester goods; and both were well founded, because greater labour and care were bestowed on their fabrication, and they were consequently stronger and more lasting. The knowledge of this fact has induced some British manufacturers to have their calicoes and printed cottons done up with all the external appearance of American goods, and sold as such in the ports of South America and the islands of the Pacific.

It is now about ten years since this bleachery was established, and previous to its erection the expense of bleaching cottons used to be 12 cents per lb., which, by the improved processes used, is now

reduced to one and a half cent ; and the profit is greater upon the smaller rate than it used to be on the larger. The power of the steam-engine by which the works are carried on is 270 horses ; the wages of the men employed range from one to two dollars per day, and the boys about half that sum. Their whole number exceeds 300 ; but no females are employed in the establishment. The appearance of order, cleanliness, and comfort which reigned throughout the whole was very striking, and greater, I think, than would be found in any similar establishment in England.

We next visited the steam cotton-mills recently erected by a company of capitalists here, and now in full and profitable operation. I had seen most of the large cotton-mills in Manchester, Stockport, Ashton, Oldham, and Preston, as well as in Glasgow, and was familiar with all the processes used in them ; and I had expected to find everything in the American mills inferior to the same things in the English ones, merely from the consideration that the latter had enjoyed all the advantages of long establishment and great experience, while the former were of comparatively recent origin. I was surprised, however, to find this in all things equal, and in many superior, to any similar establishment that I had ever visited at home.

The edifice itself is a massive red brick structure, 260 feet in length by 40 in breadth, of four stories high above the ground-floor, and, exclusive of the attic, the whole height of the building is about 60 feet, with two square towers projecting in front of about 100 feet in height. The just proportions and good taste observed in the architecture, the decorations of the cornice and mouldings at the roof, the lightness and finish of the towers, and the general aspect of the whole, made it look more like some public building for government-offices than a cotton-mill, and caused it to be an ornament to the city instead of a deformity, as most of the large mills are in England.

In the interior we were conducted over every floor from the base to the attic, and saw all the operations, from the hoisting in the bales of raw cotton, to the last finish of the finest threads, as well as the department in which all the machinery used in the mill was made and repaired ; everything appeared to us to be in the highest possible order, and the operations to be conducted with the greatest skill and attention. In the several rooms in which the people were at work, more attention seemed to be paid to cleanliness, neatness, and ornament than in English mills ; while the persons employed were all better dressed, and evidently in a condition of greater comfort than the same class of factory operatives in England. There are employed in the whole about 300 persons, 200 of whom are men, and 100 women, with very few boys.

The wages of the smiths employed in making and repairing the machinery averaged a dollar and a half per day, though many received two dollars, and some more. The spinners averaged a dollar

per day, and the overseers a dollar and a half. The women, whose ages ranged from 16 to 25, earned half a dollar and three quarters of a dollar per day, and the more skilful a dollar. There were very few married women at work, as it is thought discreditable to the husband that his wife should do anything but look after his domestic arrangements, and attend to her children and her home; so that, unless a husband is improvident, or unfortunate through sickness or any other cause, the wife, though married from the mill, never returns to it. As it is undoubtedly very desirable that all wives should be left free from any other labour, to attend to the affairs of their own homes, and render them comfortable for their husbands and children, I should like to see the same state of things introduced into England, where the sight of father, mother, and children of the same family, all working in the same mill, and all earning scarcely more than a father and a single son will earn here, is a sad and melancholy sight, since it seems to preclude all hope of their intellectual improvement, or their future elevation even a single step beyond their present condition.

The hours of work, exclusive of meals, are ten in the winter and eleven in the summer; and as there are no very young children employed, the hours are uniformly the same for all engaged. Among the young girls of the factory the greater number were extremely pretty, some were really beautiful, and all were as well dressed as young milliners and mantuamakers in England. The greatest respect appeared to be shown to them by their employers, as well as by the overseers and others with whom they had occasion to communicate; and this respect was the better secured by the females all working together in certain rooms, and the males in certain others, so as to ensure a general separation of the two sexes during their labours.

I have reason to believe that the condition and character of this class of operatives in America is greatly superior to that of the same class in Britain. For this there are a number of causes; one is, that the tariff of protecting duties enables the manufacturer to give better wages, and yet realize larger profits than are made in England, out of which he can afford to bestow many ornaments and comforts which a more limited profit would oblige him to curtail. Another cause is, that the men and women employed in the works are better educated while children, have more self-respect, are more temperate, more moral, and, consequently, more prudent.

One of the principal manufacturers told me that it was customary to keep an open running account with each individual working in the mill, some being paid by the day, and others by the piece; and that they never drew any wages in advance, but always left a balance to accumulate, so that at the end of each half year, when they came to a settlement, they had frequently 100 dollars each to pay to the males, and sixty and seventy dollars to pay to the fe-

males, as the arrears of wages not drawn by them. This they invariably invested in savings' banks, or stocks of some description, to yield them interest; and the accumulation of two or three years became sufficient to buy them a house; another year's surplus would furnish it, and then they were in a condition to marry. After this the husband would continue in the factory, while the wife would attend to her household affairs at home, and help out her husband's wages by economy in the purchase and making of his apparel, and occasional needlework for others as well as for himself, so that they would continue to advance in respectability and comfort until the workman should become a master on a small scale himself. Many, who are now rich capitalists in Rhode Island, have risen from such a beginning as this.

Among the very few things that I saw in Providence which I could wish not to have seen, was a lottery office; so fatal a snare for the passion of speculation and gambling, and by the temptations of which so many prudent men are rendered reckless and profligate. The object to which the profits of the lottery were to be devoted was a good one, being to increase the funds for supporting the public schools; but even the excellence of the end for which the funds were to be raised could not reconcile me to such objectionable means as that of tempting men to adventure in so uncertain and gambling a transaction as purchasing a ticket in a lottery.

On the other hand, I was much pleased at the fewness of spirit-shops, of which I did not see half a dozen during the course of all my walks through the city, and not a single drunken person through all the time of our stay. We saw only one pawnbroker's shop, another excellent symptom, for their abundance is another sure indication of the improvidence and the intemperance of the population by which they are required.

The people of Providence generally appeared to us more robust, ruddy, and healthy than those of Boston or New-York; the dryness of the sandy and gravelly soil, the excellence of the water for drinking, and the sheltered state of the town from bleak easterly winds, may all contribute to this; for the climate is more soft and more mild than it is in New-England generally, and neither the heats of summer nor the colds of winter are felt in such extremes at Providence as they are in the other cities of the North. The temperate habits of the people generally may be inferred from the fact that at the City Hotel, where we resided, there were not more than two persons out of fifty at the dinner-table who took wine, and these were strangers passing through the city and stopping at the hotel for a day; while at the Tremont House in Boston, where about the same number of persons dined at what is called the ladies' table, and where gentlemen (but only those who are accompanied by ladies) sit, as gentlemen who are unaccompanied by ladies dine in a separate room, there were often from twenty to

thirty decanters of wine seen on the table; and those who did not partake always formed a small minority. Even in the boarding-house at Boston, to which we removed from the Tremont, the majority of the gentlemen, and several of the ladies, drank wine regularly at dinner, but in the hotel at Providence it was a rare occurrence to see this done by any, and these were generally passengers.

Among the few peculiarities that I noticed was that of knockers being used at the doors as well as bells, whereas at Boston the latter only are used; at least I do not remember to have seen many at the dwelling-houses of that city, while at Providence they are seen as abundantly as in England, being affixed to almost every door.

In the carts and wagons used for heavy burdens, oxen were much more frequently used than horses, and economy was assigned as the reason of this: the number of oxen thus employed was considerable; but in the stage-coaches and other public conveyances for passengers horses alone are employed.

CHAPTER XLVII.

Departure from Providence.—Touch at Bristol.—Land at Fall River.—Journey to New-Bedford.—Religious Services at New-Bedford during our Stay.—Rev. Mr. Holmes's Account of the Regions of the West.—Rev. Mr. Bent's farewell Address to his Congregation.—Public Meeting at New-Bedford for a Sailor's Home.—Visit to the Beth-el Church.—Clothing Store for Seamen.—Reading-room and Museum of Curiosities. Tablet to an English Seaman raised by Americans.

On the morning of Saturday, the 8th of December, we left Providence by the steamboat called "The King Philip" for New-Bedford, to which I had been invited to deliver my lectures. We met at the wharf a number of our Providence friends, assembled to take a last parting shake of the hand, and to wish us an agreeable trip and safe and speedy return, which we promised to make, if possible, in the ensuing summer; and at ten o'clock we left the City wharf.

Our passage down the Narraganset Bay to the southward was agreeable, though there was nothing of particular interest to engage our attention till we rounded the point which opened the bay and town of Bristol, where we landed some passengers, and took in others for New-Bedford. The appearance of Bristol from the sea is pleasing, and the active bustle on its wharves indicated considerable traffic and communication. Several fine ships of between 300 and 400 tons burden were taking in and discharging cargoes; many warehouses and manufactories were spread along the edge of the town, and several handsome churches—among others, one

of Gothic structure, which is called "The English Church," being Episcopalian—shot up their square towers and taller spires from among the ordinary dwellings, the number of which is about 500, and the population from 1500 to 2000. The great depth of water, and easy access for ships of the largest burden, offer peculiar advantages to Bristol; and these are still farther increased by the recent discovery of a large bed of anthracite coal, which is extensively used in all the dwellings, as well as manufactories of the state.

From Bristol, which we reached in about two hours after leaving Providence, we proceeded on by water for another hour, when we arrived at the head of another small inlet or creek, at the much larger town called Fall River, from a stream in the vicinity which has several falls, and thereby furnishes an extensive water-power for the various manufactories established here. The appearance of this town is not so prepossessing as that of Bristol, though it contains from 8000 to 10,000 inhabitants. It is, however, of comparatively recent origin, is built with less regularity than American towns in general, and is almost wholly occupied by a manufacturing population. Several large ships were lying here also, and one, a Boston ship of 400 tons, was beating out of the bay as we entered, having just landed a cargo of iron, direct from Russia, for the use of the manufactories here.

We landed at Fall River, and there we took an extra-coach to New-Bedford, the distance to which was only 12 miles. The road was rocky and sandy, generally level, and not fertile at any time, but, seen in its winter dress, with snow on the ground, was more than usually dreary. We reached New-Bedford in about two hours and a half, and found agreeable quarters provided for us at the Mansion House by the friends who had invited us here.

We remained in New-Bedford about a fortnight, and passed our time most agreeably. My course of lectures on Egypt was delivered on the evenings of each week in the old Congregational Church, and attended by audiences increasing from about 400 at the commencement to more than 600 at the close. This occupation, as usual, brought us speedily acquainted with the most intelligent and influential families of the town, from whom we received so much attention, that every evening not occupied by the lecture was passed in a large party; and frequently, on the days the lectures were delivered, we dined with one family, drank tea with a second, and took some light refreshment with a third, after the lecture was over.

Among the religious services that we attended while in New-Bedford were two that interested us very deeply. The first was a sermon preached by the Rev. Mr. Holmes, who had recently returned from a tour through the western regions of the United States, made in connexion with the promotion of religious objects; and as

he had acquired considerable information as to the state of society in the great valley of the Mississippi, and in the bordering states of Ohio, Kentucky, Missouri, Indiana, and Tennessee, he made this information the subject of an address in the afternoon of the Sabbath to his own congregation and such other person as chose to attend. The account which he gave in this discourse of the capacity, fertility, and abundance of these vast and teeming regions, was strikingly impressive and full of grandeur; but the picture which he presented of the state of society there was painful in the extreme; and the cupidity, recklessness, intemperance, and profligacy of the mass, as he portrayed them, excited the deepest sorrow and regret that such beautiful regions should be peopled by so unpromising a class.

The other service that interested us deeply, but in another way, was the farewell sermon of a young Episcopalian clergyman, the Rev. Mr. Bent, who took leave of his congregation previous to his departing for Philadelphia, where he had received a call to a larger church and more extensive charge. Of the sects here, the Baptists are the most numerous, the Unitarians the most wealthy, and the Episcopalians the fewest of all. The number who began the first congregation of Episcopalians within the town was only five, about five years ago, and they then met in a small room. Having augmented their number to about thirty, they thought that the building a suitable church, and engaging a popular clergyman, might still farther augment their numbers, and this they resolved to do. The church was erected, and, though built of wood, so far exceeded their means as to involve them in debt. The clergyman was procured; and if learning, eloquence, and zeal in the discharge of his public duties, and humility, gentleness, and courtesy in his private relations, could have attracted a congregation, the gentleman they had been so fortunate as to obtain, Mr. Bent, would have accomplished it. At the end of five years, during which he had endeared himself, not only to his own flock, but to the whole town, by the readiness with which he took a part in almost every benevolent work, his communicants did not exceed fifty, with very little prospect of increase; and his talents and character having obtained for him a reputation that had passed beyond the limits of his own immediate sphere, he had received an invitation to take charge of an Episcopal church in Philadelphia, which his sense of duty had induced him to accept.

We attended his farewell discourse on the afternoon of Sunday, the 16th of December, having heard Mr. Holmes on the preceding Sabbath; and though, on the forenoon of the 9th, when we attended Mr. Bent for the first time, there were not more than 60 persons present, the congregation attracted by his farewell discourse amounted to nearly 400. The sermon was appropriate and beautiful. The text was from the First General Epistle of Peter:

“For all flesh is as grass, and all the glory of man as the flower of grass. The grass withereth, and the flower thereof fadeth away; but the word of the Lord endureth forever. And this is the word which by the Gospel is preached unto you.” The discourse on this text aimed to show that everything was in a state of change and decay: brute matter and animal life, passing from one stage into another, and all around us in perpetual mutation; but that, amid all this change, the Gospel remained permanent and enduring to the end. Though, in the course of events, the minister was now called from his flock, and possibly might be gathered to his fathers, and they to theirs, before they should meet again, yet he left behind him that Gospel which he had preached, and which others would come to preach after him, untouched by any of those changes which affect all other things.

The matter and the manner of all this was so beautiful, so devout, so tender, and so affectionate, that out of the 400 persons present, there was scarcely a countenance which was not marked by the expression of the deepest sympathy and concern; while many eyes were suffused with tears, and some of his more attached communicants shed them freely and copiously. The services closed by a farewell hymn, written by himself, copies of which were placed in the pews; and every voice, though many were in a state of tremulation through excess of feeling, appeared to join in the solemn strain in which it was sung. It was altogether the most affecting religious service that I had yet attended in the country, and made me share the common regret that such a pastor and such a flock should be separated.*

On the evening of the same Sabbath a large public meeting was held at the Baptist Church, the largest edifice in New-Bedford, for the purpose of making an appeal to its inhabitants in favour of establishing a “Sailors’ Home,” as at New-York, Boston, and elsewhere, in which the seamen arriving at this port might find all the advantages of a quiet and comfortable boarding-house, without the temptations to which they are hourly subject in their usual haunts, from being constantly pined by interested parties with intoxicating drinks. As the interest which I had ever taken in the cause of elevating the condition, improving the character, and adding to the comforts and enjoyments of seamen as a class, both in England and America, was well known here, the meeting, which had been some time contemplated, was purposely deferred till my arrival, and I was specially invited to attend and take a part in its proceedings, which I cheerfully did.

The meeting began to assemble about six o’clock, and the church was soon crowded in every part, about 1500 persons finding admittance, and many being obliged to go away for want of room. The galleries were filled with a large body of seamen, all clean

* A copy of the parting hymn will be found in the Appendix, No. XII.

and in their neatest trim, which, as they were almost all uniformly dressed in blue jackets, waistcoats, and trousers, with white shirts and black silk cravats, and behaved with the greatest decorum, had a fine and characteristic effect in its mere aspect, and undoubtedly assisted to enlist the sympathies of the meeting in behalf of their race.

The proceedings of the evening were opened by the Rev. Mr. Moggridge, the pastor of the church, with prayer. The chairman, Samuel Rodman, Esq., a Quaker of opulence in the town, and president of the New-Bedford Port Society, then explained the object of the meeting, and invited general attention to the statements which would follow. After this the report of the last year's proceedings was read, and the first resolutions were moved by the Rev. Mr. Holmes and the Rev. Mr. Bent, each of whom made very feeling and appropriate addresses in support of them.

I was next introduced to the audience, and occupied the remainder of the evening, speaking for about two hours, and embracing a general view of the whole subject, setting forth the grounds on which seamen, as a class, had powerful claims on the rest of the community, who were all more or less benefited by their toils and labours, in the extension of geographical discovery, the spread of commerce, and the promotion of civilization; and whose peculiar disadvantages and privations, and the special dangers by which they were surrounded, in the shape of every conceivable temptation that assailed them when they came on shore, strengthened those claims on the other portions of the community for aid and protection, to save them from the dangers which the land rather than the sea presented to them.

I recommended the establishment at New-Bedford of a "Sailors' Home," on the plan of an improved boarding-house, with every domestic comfort at a cheap rate, and with auxiliary amusements of an innocent and instructive kind, but free from the contamination of intoxicating drinks. The mode by which this could easily be accomplished, by a very light tonnage-duty on the ships devoted specially to this end, was clearly shown; the success of similar undertakings in other places proved; and the benefits that would result from all this, in a pecuniary and economical point of view, as well as in the higher objects of humanity, morality, and religion, were enlarged upon at length. The result of the whole was the unanimous adoption of a resolution to set about building and establishing the "Sailors' Home" proposed, without delay, and procuring the funds for it after the manner suggested.

The meeting was altogether interesting and impressive, and the feeling awakened was strong and enthusiastic; so that a liberal collection was made on the spot to assist the funds required for carrying forward the proposed object, and many names were col-

lected also as friends to the undertaking, who thus pledged themselves to future exertions in its behalf.

During our stay in New-Bedford I went to visit the Bethel Chapel, which has been already erected for the religious services of the seamen; and in company with Mr. Francis Alden, at whose invitation I had come to New-Bedford to deliver my lectures, and Mr. Enoch Mudge, the chaplain of the Bethel, we inspected the clothing-store, reading-room, and museum attached to the establishment. The first of these originated with the ladies of New-Bedford, who wished to provide apparel for sick seamen and their families when in need. This led to its enlargement, for the purpose of supplying sailors generally with outfits; and the wives, daughters, and widows of seamen are employed in making them, receiving good wages for their labour, and constant employment, while the seamen are furnished with better clothing and at cheaper prices than from the common stores.

In the reading-room are books, papers, and journals of various kinds; and here is kept a register, in which the name of every seaman of the port, as far as it can be obtained, is entered, with his place of birth, age, and other particulars, and an entry made in a separate column of the name and address of the persons to whom, in the event of his death, he wishes a communication to be made, and to whom he desires any property he may leave to be transmitted; an arrangement that is attended with the best effects, and worthy of general adoption.

In the museum are a great variety of natural productions and curiosities, gathered chiefly in the whaling voyages, from the various continents and islands visited in their track, including many of the dresses, warlike weapons, and even idols, of the islanders of the South Sea, with shells, minerals, birds, fishes, reptiles, and other curiosities of nature and art.

I was much pleased to find in the Bethel Chapel many tablets of marble set up by the seamen, in token of their affection for shipmates lost at sea; and I was still more pleased to find that the first instance of this kind was one in which a young Englishman, John Glover, of London, who was the only one of his nation among the whole crew, had been lost overboard at the age of twenty-two, from the ship *China*, on the 27th of January, 1835. On the return of the ship to port, after an interval of many months, his American shipmates subscribed to procure a marble tablet, to be set up in the Bethel Church to his memory, and had a funeral discourse pronounced on the occasion of its being placed there, at which all the sailors then in port, as well as the ladies of the Port Society, and many of the principal families of the town, attended. In a subsequent instance, when a young English seaman, belonging to the revenue schooner of the port, died, the American commander and crew had a handsome marble tablet set up in the Bethel Church to

his memory, and these examples have now become of general adoption. Such acts as these are agreeable to record, and worthy of recommendation for general imitation.*

Our stay at New-Bedford, though short, was full of pleasure; and we experienced more friendly attentions, and found ourselves more completely at home, in the agreeable and hospitable society of its inhabitants, than we had yet done since landing in America, much as we had before experienced of all this in many of the cities and towns of the Union.

CHAPTER XLVII.

Plan and Appearance of the Town.—Public and private Buildings.—Population and Classes.—Maritime Character and Connexions of the Inhabitants.—Anecdote of New-Bedford Sailor-boys in the Persian Gulf.—Domestic Manners, Characteristics, and Causes.—Kindness and Hospitality experienced.—Skill in removing Houses from their original Positions.—Visit to the Village and Port of Matapoissett.—Extensive Ship-building carried on there.—Manufacture of Salt from the Sea-water.—Visit to the Rev. Dr. Robbins.—Description of his curious and valuable Library.—Township of Rochester.—Use of the word "Town."—Americanisms generally old English Phrases.—Journey from New-Bedford to Plymouth.

THE town of New-Bedford is one of the prettiest that we had yet seen in the United States. Its beautiful and advantageous position, the regularity of its plan, the good taste of its public buildings, and the ample size and substantiality of its private mansions, all combine to give it an air of opulence and comfort which must strike every stranger who visits it.

New-Bedford lies on the western bank of the River Acushnett, which first flows into the inlet or arm of the sea that here receives its waters, and then discharges itself into Buzzard's Bay. The town of Fairhaven occupies the eastern bank of the same river, the two places being connected by a long bridge resting on piles, and crossing two or three small islands in its course. The breadth of the stream from town to town is little short of a mile. New-Bedford rises gradually from the river's bank, over the side of the eastern hill, at an easy angle of ascent, till its houses reach the upper edge or ridge, which is about one hundred feet above the level of the sea, and is distant from the water's edge about half a mile. This constitutes the breadth of the town, while its length along the sea-border, from its northern to its southern extreme, is little short of two miles. The streets are laid out with great regularity, the longitudinal streets running north and south, parallel with the line of the river, and the lateral streets running east and

* Copies of two tablets of this description, one to an English, and one to an American seaman, are given in the Appendix, No. XIII.

west, from the upper ridge to the stream ; so that, on riding along this ridge, and looking downward to the east, every new street passed by presents a new and unobstructed opening to the water.

The streets are in general from 60 to 80 feet in breadth, and many of them are lined on each side with trees. The business part of the town, near the water and the wharves, is the least beautiful, as might be expected, from the counting-houses, stores, shops, and warehouses that abound there ; but the upper part of the town contains many noble mansions, as large, as elegant, and constructed in as good taste as any in the country. They reminded us very forcibly of some of the beautiful buildings of Canandaigua, in the State of New-York, being, like them, of the purest style of architecture, and like them, too, surrounded with beautiful grounds, shrubberies, and gardens ; while, instead of the lake, they have the more varied and more extended prospect of the river that flows before the town in the east, and the wide expanse of the blue sea to the south.

Among the public buildings is an excellent custom-house and postoffice in one, built of Massachusetts granite, with a fine Doric portico ; a new market-house and town-hall, now erecting, of granite also, with Doric portico, 100 feet by 70 ; a commodious court-house, of brick, with an Ionic portico. There are no less than 14 churches, though the population is not more than 12,000, many of which are elegant structures, particularly a new Unitarian Church, built of granite, in the Saxon-Gothic style, with massive square tower and turrets ; and a new Baptist Church, with a fine Ionic portico and tower of the most graceful proportions. Besides these, there are several banks and an academy ; while many of the private dwellings are so highly ornamental, and some of them even so imposing, as works of art, that they would do honour to any city of the Old World as well as of the New.

The population of New-Bedford is estimated at 12,000 persons, and it is believed that there are among them a greater number of wealthy families than in any town of the same population in the country, their wealth having been wholly accumulated by trade. A considerable portion of the opulent class here are Quakers ; but, with the exception of these, nearly every other person of wealth began his career as a shipboy at sea, and passed up, through the various gradations of seaman, officer, and commander, and then retired to place his capital out to profitable use, and live comparatively at ease.

New-Bedford has furnished more captains to the regular lines of packet-ships between New-York and London, and New-York and Liverpool, than any other town on the coast. One of the oldest veterans of this service, Captain Crocker, is now living at New-Bedford, a fine, robust, and healthy old sailor, active and vigorous at 85 ; and, after having crossed the Atlantic between England and America more than 200 times, and occupied the post of com-

modore, or oldest commander in the service, for many years, he is now the president of an insurance office, and universally beloved and respected.

Among the many minor circumstances which rendered my visit to New-Bedford particularly agreeable, was a fact of which I had wholly lost the recollection, but which others had kindly remembered to my advantage. Of the captains furnished by New-Bedford to the New-York packets, there were four, who, as long ago as the year 1817, sailed from this port as boys in a ship called the *Leonidas*, commanded by Captain Job Stevens, to the Persian Gulf. At that period I was myself sailing in that sea, in command of the "*Humayoon Shah*," or the "*Magnificent Monarch*," a fine frigate in the service of the Arab prince, the Imaum of Muscat; and these four youths rowed their commander alongside the frigate, in a visit which he paid to me in the Persian Gulf. Being much struck with their interesting appearance—for they were all sons of captains, and destined to become captains themselves, though they pulled the oars of the jolly-boat, as is usual with all the boys who are intended to be made thorough seamen of in this country—I invited them on board, and bade the steward give them refreshments; a favour which was so well remembered as to be talked of on their return home, and to be made the subject of universal comment and praise in New-Bedford, as soon as my intended visit to it was made known. I regretted to learn that all these four captains, whose names were Huddleston, Stevens, Swift, and Stoddart, were now at sea; but their relatives and friends here, to whom they had told this anecdote, had treasured it up for my arrival; and before I was in New-Bedford a week, I heard it repeated to me by twenty different persons. If so slight an incident as this could elicit gratitude and kind remembrance from those who were the subjects of it, and praise from those who heard of it, at a distance of so many years, who can doubt but that an interchange of hospitality and friendly services would bind nations together, as it binds individuals, more strongly than treaties, however skilfully drawn up or elaborately composed? and that England and America could be so united by reciprocal kindness is beyond a doubt; though, unhappily, there is still too strong a tendency in England to undervalue everything American, and too strong a jealousy in America, generally, to admit readily the superiority of anything English; though the exceptions to these instances of mutual prejudice are happily growing more and more abundant every year.

I may add, that the pleasure of our visit to New-Bedford was greatly increased by our meeting here an English lady, Mrs. Lumbard, whom we had the pleasure to know, and to rank among the warmest of our friends in London, thirty years ago; and an American gentleman, Captain Atkins Adams, with whom I had sailed, twenty-nine years ago, in the ship *Rising States*, of Marblehead,

from London to Norfolk in Virginia, in the year 1809; and our meeting with these friends was a source of extreme delight. They contributed, also, by their personal attentions, and introductions to the large circle of their friends, to make our stay as full of pleasure as it was possible to be, and to make us regret the close of every day, as bringing us one day nearer to the time of our separation.

The domestic manners of the families of New-Bedford were peculiarly agreeable to us, characterized as they were by a happy union of general intelligence, good sense, frankness, and more of warmth and cordiality than we had seen in the American character elsewhere. For this perhaps several causes may be assigned. One is, that there being no class here, as in Boston and the larger cities, so much above others in wealth and possessions as to make them separate themselves into an upper or exclusive caste, the intercourse is very general, and embraces all persons of moderate competency, respectable character, and affable manners. Another cause is, that having, for the most part, either passed their lives at sea or mingled much with sailors, they have that frankness and heartiness of manner so characteristic of mariners all the world over. A third cause undoubtedly is, that their voyages having embraced a wider range than usual—for trips to circumnavigate the globe, in whaling and in trading voyages, are undertaken every year from this port, and one captain was named to me whose wife had accompanied him in trading voyages three times round Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope—they have had a larger intercourse with the different nations of the world, and rubbed off many of the angles of national prejudice which adhere so strongly to those who always remain at home; while many also, after they have acquired a competency by their distant voyages at sea, take a trip with their families to England, visit France and other Continental countries from thence, and come back greatly improved in intelligence, feelings, and manners.

The result of all this, added to the particular claims which Captain Adams, Mrs. Lumbard, and the four sailor-boys, now all captains, had established for us before we came, was to make us respected, courted, and entertained by every one who could obtain a visit from us; and to comply with the wishes of as many as we desired to gratify, we were often obliged to dine with one family, take tea with a second, and pass an evening party with a third; so that, if we could have been "killed with kindness," we were really in danger of such a death.

The people of New-Bedford are as skilful as they are in other parts of America in the removal of houses from the places in which they were built to a more convenient locality. One large house was pointed out to me, built of brick, with six tall chimneys, which had been moved, whole and complete, from the spot where it was first erected, up the hill, to a more remote and eleva-

ted position ; and it was asserted and repeated by many, in whose veracity I had the fullest confidence, that all this was done while the family were living in the house, and operations of cooking going on during all the time.

Another case was pointed out to me, in which a small wooden church was moved from its position in the street to make room for the large stone church now occupying its place, under the pastoral care of Mr. Holmes ; the smaller church, in its new position, being at present used as a lecture-room. And a third instance was shown to me, in which a church had been cut down from the roof to the foundation in the centre, the two parts drawn asunder from each other, and the open space filled up so as to connect the whole, thus adding about thirty feet to the length of the building when completed.

During our stay at New-Bedford we made an excursion to a thriving little seaport, within the adjoining township of Rochester, called by its ancient Indian name of Matapoisset. The inhabitants do not exceed 800 in number ; yet so actively are they engaged in ship-building, for which the locality is peculiarly favourable, that they launch upon the average four large ships, besides many smaller vessels, in the course of each year. About three years ago, there were nine ships of from 300 to 400 tons each on the stocks at once, and three of them were launched on the same day. In the proportion of ships to population, Matapoisset perhaps exceeds any other ship-building port in the United States. Most of these vessels are engaged in the Southern whale fishery, like those of New-Bedford, and some in carrying general freight of merchandise. The smaller ones are engaged in coasting and fishing voyages. Salt is manufactured here also to a great extent from the sea-water, which is pumped up from the sea, and deposited in shallow reservoirs or salt-pans, from whence the salt is obtained by evaporation of the water.

At this village we had the pleasure to pay a visit to one of the most venerable of the New-England divines of the present day, the Rev. Dr. Thomas Robbins, who has been for forty years the pastor of the congregation over which he now presides, and who, as might be expected, is greatly esteemed and beloved by his flock. We were conducted by him over his library, which, for such a spot, is both extensive and valuable, and particularly rich in antiquarian and biblical lore. He has collected also a vast number of pamphlets and other works on the early history of America, which are all so well classified and arranged as to be immediately available for the illustration of any point of American history, and form altogether, perhaps, the most extensive and valuable collection of historical memorials in the state, the number of the separate pamphlets exceeding 4000.

In addition to these there are upward of 3000 volumes in general

history, the belles-lettres, and theology; and among the last no less than 300 ponderous folios, many of them printed between 1450 and 1500. The richest part of his library is, however, his collection of ancient Bibles, among which is a copy of Cranmer's, another of the Geneva Bible, and several of King James's, one of 1613, and one of 1630, in black letter; a copy of Coverdale's Bible; and a very fine copy of St. Jerome's Bible, printed at Venice in 1478. He has also a copy of Elliott's Bible, including the whole of the Old Testament and the New, translated by the missionary Elliott into the language of the Narraganset Indians, who formerly occupied these parts; this was printed at Cambridge, near Boston, so long ago as the year 1683, being the first Bible ever printed in America, about sixty-three years after the first settlement of Massachusetts. At the end of this Bible is a translation into the same tongue of the whole of Sternhold and Hopkins's version of David's Psalms, the versification of which is very curious in its appearance, orthography, and pronunciation, of which the following may serve as specimens:

Job, i., 1, 2.

There was a man in the land of Uz, whose name was Job; and that man was perfect and upright, and one that feared God, and eschewed evil: And there were born unto him seven sons and three daughters.

Psalms ii., 1.

With restless and ungoverned rage
Why do the heathen storm?
Why in such rash attempts engage
As they can ne'er perform?

Indian Version.

Na mo wasketomp ut ohkeit Uz,
nob ussowesu Job, kah nob wosketomp
a pannuppeyeuoo, kah sampwesu,
kah noh quoshont Godoh, kah aqueteah
matcheseonk. Kah nokitteauan ne^sausuk
tabsuron wanaumonuh, kah nishuoh watauronoh.

Indian Translation.

Tohwutch nag, penoewohteacheg,
Musquantamwehettit!
Tohwutch tahroche teagas nag,
Unnantammohettit.

Having passed some hours, when in England, with the late Dr. Adam Clarke, in examining the Duke of Sussex's collection of Bibles at Kensington, I advised Dr. Robbins to open a communication with his royal highness on the subject of Biblical literature, which might be productive of mutual gratification.*

The township of Rochester, of which Matapoisset forms a part, is about six miles square, the usual area assigned to such townships; and each section, so cut off and divided, is governed by town's officers—the selectmen, as they are called, being elected

* The Rev. Dr. Robbins adopted my advice, and addressed a letter to his royal highness the Duke of Sussex, offering him a duplicate copy which he possessed of Elliott's Indian Bible, and expressing a great desire to obtain from Europe a copy of the old edition usually called "The Bishop's Bible." To this the illustrious duke returned a very prompt and gracious reply, sending out to Dr. Robbins a copy of the Bible he wished to procure, but, at the same time, declining to deprive him of the duplicate copy of the Indian translation, as he already possessed one of these in his collection at Kensington. This act of princely liberality to a distant and unknown republican minister of the Gospel, of a dissenting body of Christians, soon became known in the United States, and was spoken of with great and deserved praise in most of the papers of the Union.

annually by a town's meeting—and these regulate everything connected with the business of the township; while the sheriff of the county and the justice of the peace, who are appointed by the governor and council of the state, discharge the functions of the judiciary. It is the universal custom here to call these townships by the name of "town," and thus an inhabitant would say, "The town of Rochester is six miles square," or "the village of Mata-poisset is situated within the town of Rochester." As English persons usually understand by the word town a concentrated collection of dwellings, this different sense in which the word is used here gives rise sometimes to ludicrous mistakes. An English lady, who was married to an American gentleman, heard him describe his residence as within the town of Rochester, which the lady naturally supposed, from his stating it to contain 10,000 inhabitants, to be a pretty large-sized town. On their way thither, the husband having passed the limits of the adjoining township, exclaimed, "Now, my love, we are very near home." To which the wife rejoined, "But where is the town? I do not see it yet." "Oh!" replied the husband, "why, we have been in the town for several miles past." The astonishment of the lady was increased rather than diminished. "Town!" she exclaimed; "why, I see nothing but fields, and cattle, and trees; for not a single house is visible in any direction. Surely this is a strange kind of town without houses." Yet such was the "town" of Rochester, or township, which would be the more accurate name. The dwelling of the husband, which was within the "town," was a country mansion, surrounded by half a dozen neighbours within a mile; and the area of six miles square was spread over in the same way with scattered dwellings, hamlets, and villages, several miles apart from each other, but all, in the New-England sense of the term, belonging to the same town!

As connected with the different use and acceptance of certain words, and the peculiarity of some particular expressions, I may mention, that in this quarter, to "hire money" is used for to borrow, and to "hire a farm" or a house is used for to rent it. The word "smart" appeared to be in general use to indicate good health, as, for instance, when persons were asked in the usual manner, "How d'ye do this morning?" the answer would often be, "Smart, thank you," or "Pretty smart," which is a degree below, and "Quite smart," which is a degree above the ordinary condition. In England, the word "smart" is usually applied to gayety of appearance and finery of apparel or decoration among landmen; but at sea it is used to imply activity, readiness, and intelligence. Thus "a smart officer" is one who thoroughly understands his duty, and is active and efficient in maintaining discipline; and the injunction "be smart" is often given to seamen. In this sense it is used by all classes in America, a "smart man" meaning al-

ways an active, intelligent, and capable person. The word "chores" is here used to signify errands, messages, and small commissions or jobs; and ladies of the best society say, "I have a great many chores to do this morning" when they have shopping or purchases to make for themselves or others. This, however, is old English; as the phrase "chorewoman" is still used in London for an assistant servant, called in to help the domestics on cleaning days.

Indeed, most of the phrases which we are accustomed to call "Americanisms" are in reality old English, and were probably brought to this country by the original settlers, the only difference being that they have become obsolete in England, but are still continued to be used here. As an instance of this, it may be mentioned that the act of cutting anything out of wood with a knife, as children make boats and other playthings, is called "to *whittle* it out." Now, so far back as the time of Chaucer, the weapon used by yeomen, which was half knife and half dagger, was called a *whittle*; and "Sheffield whittles" are spoken of as among the best then known. So the phrase "as *liev*," implying "as soon," is old English. In the reign of Henry the Eighth the phrase was common in English writings; and in Tyndal the martyr's Preface to his new translation of the Scriptures from the original Hebrew and Greek into the vernacular tongue, he uses the word "*liever*" to convey the meaning which we should now express by the terms "much sooner" or "rather," in the following passage, in which, speaking of the great hostility of the Romish clergy to any translation of the Scriptures into the vulgar tongue, he says, "A thousand books had they *liever* to be put forth against their abominable doings and doctrine, than that the Scriptures should come to light."

CHAPTER XLIX.

Anniversary of the Landing of the Pilgrims.—Ball at the Pilgrim Hall.—Beauty of the Ladies.—Presentation of Colours to the Standish Guards.—Oration of Dr. Robbins.—Air of God Save the King.—Ode to the Pilgrims.—Temperance Address at the Orthodox Church.—Examination of the Town and its Records.

HAVING been invited to attend the annual celebration of the Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers at Plymouth, we left New-Bedford on the morning of Friday, the 21st of December, with some agreeable friends, who engaged an extra-stage for the purpose. Our party consisted of Mr. Francis Alden and his lady, both descended from the pilgrim fathers, John Alden and Governor Bradford, whose silver cup, brought over in the Mayflower, we were the bearers of for the celebration; Captain Atkins Adams, with whom I had

come to this country 29 years ago, when we sailed together from London to Norfolk in Virginia, and his lady; Mr. Jenny, another descendant of the pilgrim fathers; the Rev. Dr. Thomas Robbins, of Matapoisset, who had been invited to deliver the annual oration; Mrs. Buckingham, my son, and myself.

We left New-Bedford at half past eight, passed through Fairhaven at nine, and after an hour's pleasant ride through a stony and barren tract, in which we drove ten miles, we reached the centre of the township of Rochester soon after ten. Here we alighted at the hospitable mansion of Captain and Mrs. Lumbard, the lady whom we had known as a warm and intimate friend more than thirty years ago in England; and, early as the hour was, we found prepared for us a sumptuous entertainment, in a luncheon or second breakfast, of which we all heartily partook. Starting from hence again at twelve, we passed over a more sandy, but still infertile territory, except for pine-wood, which lined the road on either side, and after a drive of three hours more, performing a distance of about twenty miles, we reached the ancient town of Plymouth, and found apartments provided for us at the "Old Colony House" hotel.

The anniversary of the Landing of the Pilgrims falling this year on a Saturday, and Saturday evening being revered in many parts of New-England as the commencement of the Sabbath, it was thought proper that the public ball, which usually closes the proceedings of the anniversary day, should on this occasion be given on the night preceding. The ball was to be given in the building called "Pilgrim Hall;" the tickets of admission were three dollars each, including refreshments; and the hours of dancing were limited from seven in the evening till three in the morning. Having been joined by a large party of other New-Bedford friends, who came down in their own carriages, we made a "goodly company" for the ball, and attended it early in the evening. The number assembled was about 400, more than half of whom, we were told, were residents of Plymouth, and the other half were strangers from Boston, Providence, New-Bedford, and the surrounding towns. The number of ladies and gentlemen were nearly equal, though I was informed that among the resident population of Plymouth the females are nearly three times as numerous as the males, the young men leaving the town between 15 and 20 to study or pursue the calling to which they intend to devote themselves for life. But as the greater number of the strangers who come to visit them at the anniversary are gentlemen, the severe cold of the season making it inconvenient for ladies to travel much at this time of the year, the inequality of the sexes is agreeably adjusted and balanced; and thus, at the Pilgrim Ball, as it is called, there is never any want of partners.

The dances, which were all previously fixed on, and announced

in a printed code of regulations for the evening, distributed with every ticket, consisted of country dances, called here, more accurately than with us in England, "contra-dances," cotillons, Spanish dances, and quadrilles. The visitors were as miscellaneous as those at the president's levée in Washington, or the military levée in Salem already described; for, as this is almost the only public entertainment in Plymouth throughout the year, every person that can save up the requisite sum of three dollars, and who feels no scruples of a religious nature as to joining in such entertainments, makes a point of attending the annual ball. There was a great mixture, therefore, of classes, and, consequently, a great variety of tastes in dress, and of general carriage and manners. Many of the gentlemen danced in frock-coats; some had drab, and others black and white plaid trousers, such as were fashionable for morning-wear in England a few years ago. One gentleman danced in yellow morocco slippers, and scarcely a dozen were in what would be considered a proper ball-dress at home. The ladies, however, exhibited no such marks of carelessness or neglect in their costume, but ran generally into the opposite extreme. The most fanciful mixture of colours, great profusion of ribands, and, in some instances, an almost Indian fondness for beads and feathers, made the ladies among the gayest in their apparel that we had for a long time seen. One of these, indeed, so far outstripped even the florid taste of the night, that she was designated by the other ladies generally, and as if by common consent, "the peacock;" and certainly, if a variety of gaudy colours, and the display of varied feathers could justify a claim to this distinction, it was abundantly merited.

Notwithstanding all this, there was the same commendable and beautiful order and decorum in the behaviour of all that we witnessed with so much pleasure at Washington and Salem. No one gave themselves any airs of arrogance or superciliousness. Every one made way cheerfully and readily for others; nothing was done, said, or looked that could give the slightest offence; none appeared to feel any other sentiment than respect and good-will towards each other; and, throughout the whole of the long evening, I do not remember to have seen a single countenance which did not express satisfaction, cheerfulness, and good-nature. Some of the younger ladies were among the most beautiful that we had yet seen in America; three or four were exquisitely lovely, and, as specimens of feminine beauty, could hardly be surpassed, I think, in any country in the globe. If accurate miniatures could be taken of them by first-rate artists for any collection of female beauties, in annuals or other similar publications, they would be worth a great deal to any painter or publisher in England. Such lovely faces, under the graceful pencil of Sir Thomas Lawrence, would have been numbered among the richest of his gems.

We remained at the ball till near midnight, when the spirit of

the dance was in no degree abated, and some of the younger members of our party continued until three in the morning. The next day was devoted to the remaining business of the celebration, which took place in the following order. At ten o'clock there was a parade of a military company called the Standish Guards, consisting of about fifty men, well-dressed, armed, and drilled. To these it was intended to present a new stand of colours; and for this purpose a platform was erected in front of one of the houses in Court Square, on which, after the music of an excellent band, a young lady of about eighteen ascended, accompanied by her father. Her dress was a cloth riding-habit, with velvet cap surmounted by a plume of ostrich feathers, and a long white blonde veil hanging gracefully on one side of her face. She delivered a short but appropriate address to the captain of the company on presenting him the colours for his corps. The captain replied in a much more ambitious strain; his oration, which had been evidently penned and committed to memory, was of the most inflated style, filled with lofty and sonorous words, and full of heroism, devotion, wounds, and death. Its effect, however, was completely marred by the gallant captain closing his unusually florid and energetic speech with the words, "In the name of this *corpse*, I receive, madam, the flag presented by your own fair hands." Not a muscle of any countenance betrayed the slightest perception of this error in pronunciation; for in America it is common to give to all French words used in the language, such as *route, tour, &c.*, the pronunciation which their authority would warrant if they were English, and to speak them as if they were written *rout, tower, &c.* At first this strikes one as a great vulgarity; but it is no more so than the constant practice of the English themselves, in giving to French names a purely English pronunciation, as in Paris, Calais, Lyons, &c., which, though maintaining exactly the same orthography, are so differently pronounced by the natives of England and France.

After the presentation of the colours we repaired to the Pilgrim Hall—of which a more detailed description will be given farther on—and the members of the Pilgrim Society there forming themselves into a line, and being joined by all the strangers and most of the resident heads of families in the town, marched to the music of the band, in a long procession, to the principal church, a fine Gothic building recently erected by the Unitarians. Here we heard the oration delivered by the Rev. Dr. Robbins. It was a grave, sensible, and well-arranged discourse, chiefly historical, but happily blended with moral reflections suggested by the event commemorated, and the associations of the time and place. In the course of the service an ode was sung by the choir and audience to the air of "God save the King," which tune has been long since adopted and used in this country for devotional hymns, under the

name "America." In the Appendix will be found some beautiful lines on the subject of the Pilgrim Fathers, by two of the sweetest poets of the country, Mr. Pierpont and Mrs. Sigourney.*

The service was closed by an appropriate hymn, sung to the tune of the "Old hundredth psalm," the peculiarity of which was, that it was delivered out, line by line, after the manner of the Pilgrims; it being on record that in their devotional exercises these fathers followed here the practice then common in England, of reading from the pulpit a single line only of the psalm to be sung; and when that was finished, but not before, giving out the second. This was a practice well adapted to a period when there were not printed books enough for all, and when all could not read; but wholly unnecessary at the present day, when circumstances are so much changed. A ludicrous anecdote is current on this subject, which states that the minister gave out from the pulpit, to the great astonishment of his congregation, the following paradoxical lines from an old version of David's Psalms. The first line was this:

"The Lord will come, and he will not"—

This seemed so flat a contradiction in terms that many refused to sing it at all, supposing that there was some error in the delivery. Their surprise, however, was still farther increased by the next succeeding line

"Be silent, but speak out"—

which seemed so impossible to be done that the choir were in despair; though, if the two lines had been read at once, with attention to the punctuation, they would stand thus:

"The Lord will come, and he will not
Be silent, but speak out."

After the service the guards, who had escorted the Pilgrim Society to the church, marched homeward in military order; and the afternoon was given to interchange of friendly greetings and domestic visitings. In the evening a large assemblage was collected at the orthodox church of Mr. Hall to hear an address on the history and influence of temperance societies in Great Britain, which I had been announced to deliver there.

The audience was very numerous, and the impression appeared to be as powerful as could well be desired, the address lasting upward of two hours, and great numbers coming at its close to express their satisfaction, and their regret at its not being longer.

On Sunday, the 23d, we attended the church of the Rev. Mr. Briggs, and heard a very eloquent and beautiful sermon from a passage in the Gospel of St. John: "He must increase;" alluding to the increase of the followers of Christ, and the general spread of his doctrines over the civilized world. It embraced a most interesting and philosophical review of the history of the past; it comprehended also a survey of the present; and it carried forward the imagination

* See Appendix, No. XIV. and XV.

to the prospects of the future. The sermon was written, as is almost always the case in this country ; and the preacher was young, from 25 to 30 ; but it was a most masterly composition, and admirably delivered : we had the pleasure to learn that the whole character of the man was in perfect harmony with the professions of the minister.

During the three remaining days of our stay at Plymouth, the 24th, 25th, and 26th of December, we were engaged during the mornings and afternoons in examining all the objects of interest in the town, and in the evenings in delivering, in the Pilgrim Hall, three Lectures on Palestine, which were attended by very large audiences in proportion to the population, beginning with 150 on the first evening, and ending with more than 300 on the third. This occupation, too, brought me here, as elsewhere, acquainted with the principal families of the place, who were all most anxious to show us attention in the exercise of their hospitalities, and in opening to us every source of information on all the topics of interest connected with Plymouth and its neighbourhood on which we desired to be informed.

With their aid and assistance, therefore, we visited the rock on which the Pilgrims first landed from the Mayflower, the ship that brought them from England ; the Pilgrim Hall, with its noble picture, and its interesting museum of Pilgrim relics ; the burial-ground of the first settlers, in which the mate of the Mayflower, at the age of 98, was deposited in 1697, the gravestone bearing the inscription being still preserved, he being only 21 on his arrival in the settlement, and living 77 years after his landing ; and the Record Office, in which we saw the original documents as far back as 1623, when plots of ground were assigned by lot to the settlers ; as well as many enactments and orders of the first court, attested by the autograph signatures of the Pilgrim fathers, Bradford, Winslow, Standish, Brewster, Prince, and Morton. From these united sources of documentary and oral information, the following history and description of Plymouth is drawn.

CHAPTER L.

History of the Foundation of Plymouth Colony.—Affecting Embarcation of the Pilgrims at Delfthaven.—Sail from Plymouth in the Mayflower.—Arrival off Cape Cod.—Civil Compact signed in the Cabin of the Mayflower.—Landing on Plymouth Rock.—First Treaty made with the Native Indians.—First Offence punished among the English Settlers.—Community of Property.—Individual Possessions.—First Introduction of Trial by Jury.—First Execution for Crime.—Severe Sickness and destroying Hurricane.—First Code of Laws.—Fines for drinking, smoking, and Sabbath-breaking.—Punishment of whipping for extorting high Profits.—Instance of Rigour and Impartiality in executing the Laws.—Singular Regulations respecting Manners.—Union of Plymouth with the Colony of Massachusetts.—Oliver Cromwell's Commission to Governor Winslow.—First Notice of Horses seen in the Colony.—Persecution of the Quakers.—Selling Criminals for Slaves.—Employment of native Indians as Magistrates.—Efforts of Plymouth in the Temperance Reformation.—Jail and Poor-house both empty, and Distilleries of Rum extinct.—Native Indians in Plymouth.

THE history of the foundation of Plymouth Colony is too remarkable and too interesting to be passed over in silence in any description of America; and written on the spot itself, every incident of it assumes additional importance. Without entering, however, into very minute details, an outline of the principal events connected with the rise and progress of this remarkable settlement may very appropriately precede a description of its present condition.

The religious persecutions which characterized the reigns of Mary, Elizabeth, James, and Charles, in England, led many of the most pious and worthy of the nation to seek an asylum in other countries, and to become voluntary exiles from their native land, rather than endure the oppressions to which they were subjected there.

It was in the year 1610 that a party of such exiles went to Holland, under their pastor, Mr. John Robinson, where they resided in peace for some few years, first at Amsterdam and then at Leyden; but finding, even there, some obstacles to the full enjoyment of their religious opinions, and little prospect of advancing their condition, they resolved, about the year 1616, to remove to America. Their motives for this step, as recorded by themselves, were to "preserve the morals of their youth; to prevent them, through want of employment, from leaving their parents and engaging in business unfavourable to religion; to avoid the inconveniences of incorporating with the Dutch; to lay a foundation for the propagation of the Gospel in remote parts of the world; and, by separating from all the existing establishments in Europe, to form the model of a pure Church, free from the admixture of human additions."

In 1617 Mr. Robinson employed Mr. Robert Cushman and Mr. John Carver as agents for his church to the Virginia Company, to obtain a grant of territory for settlement within their limits, and, at

the same time, security from the king that they should enjoy their religious freedom. They did not return till 1618, and the answer they brought was, that the Virginia Company would grant the land, and "the king would connive at them, and not molest them, provided they carried themselves peaceably;" but he would not set the example of granting any act of toleration officially, or under the great seal of state. In 1619 a second negotiation was opened by Mr. Bradford and Mr. Cushman, and these obtained the patent desired; but as it was not in all respects such as was unanimously approved, it was never made use of; and they contented themselves with obtaining a grant of land from the Virginia Company, which was made to them along the banks of the Hudson River—all the territory north of the Chesapeake being then called "Northern Virginia"—and determined to rely on Divine Providence for the issue.

It was thought best that a portion of the whole number should go out first, and that Mr. Robinson the pastor and another portion should remain behind until the arrival of the first party should be heard of. This being agreed on, several of the congregation sold their estates and made a common fund, which, with money contributed by others, enabled them to purchase the *Speedwell*, of sixty tons, and to charter the *Mayflower*, of 180 tons, for the voyage. All things being ready, they prepared to embark at Delfthaven. The following touching account is recorded in the New-England Memorial, of the last hours they passed on the Continent of the Old World before they embarked for the New.

"When they came to the port, they found the ship and all things ready; and such of their friends as could not come with them followed after them, and sundry came from Amsterdam to see them shipped, and to take their leave of them. One night was spent with little sleep with the most, but with friendly entertainment and Christian discourse, and other real expressions of Christian love. The next day, the wind being fair, they went on board, and their friends with them; when truly doleful was the sight of that sad and mournful parting, to hear what sighs, and sobs, and prayers did sound among them, what tears did gush from every eye, and pithy speeches pierced each other's hearts, so that sundry of the Dutch strangers that stood upon the quay as spectators could not refrain from tears. Yet comfortable and sweet it was to see such lively and true expressions of dear and unfeigned love. Their reverend pastor falling down on his knees, and they all with him, with watery cheeks, commended them with most fervent prayers unto the Lord and his blessing; and then, with mutual embraces and many tears, they took their leave one of another, which proved to be the last leave of many of them."

The pilgrims embarked on board the *Speedwell*, at Delfthaven, in Holland, on the 22d of July, 1620, and sailed for Southampton, in England. Here they found the *Mayflower* awaiting their arrival, and both vessels sailed from the port together on the 5th of August following. The *Speedwell*, however, proving leaky, was

obliged to put into Dartmouth to repair; but, on sailing a second time, was found to be so unseaworthy that both vessels put into Plymouth, in Devonshire, where the *Speedwell* was condemned, and the whole of her passengers transferred to the *Mayflower*, in which there were, therefore, 101 passengers, including 41 males, 28 females, all wives accompanying their husbands, and 42 children and servants, besides the crew, crowded into a vessel of 180 tons burden.

The *Mayflower* sailed alone from Plymouth on the 6th of September, 1620, and shaped her course for the Hudson River, on the banks of which the grant of land had been made to the emigrants by the North Virginia Company; but, according to the positive testimony of the secretary Morton, the captain of the ship was bribed by the Dutch governor to conduct them to New-England, so as to place them there beyond the protection of any English charter. The boisterous nature of the passage at this season of the year rendered it very easy, on pretence of unfavourable winds, to shape the vessel's course farther to the northward; and, accordingly, on the 11th of November, after a passage of more than two months, they found themselves entangled among the breakers of Cape Cod, and winter far advanced. Here they anchored; but, before they sent on shore a party to reconnoitre the ground, and ascertain whether a landing could be safely effected, they assembled in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, and, after a solemn religious service of thanksgiving and prayer to the God of their worship, they drew up and signed the following brief but memorable compact of civil government:

"In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread sovereign lord King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c., having undertaken, for the glory of God, and advancement of the Christian faith, and honour of our king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern part of Virginia, do, by these presents, solemnly and mutually, and in the presence of God and one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic, for our better ordering and preservation, and furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof do enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal laws and ordinances, acts, constitutions, and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due subjection and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names, at Cape Cod, the eleventh day of November, in the year of the reign of our sovereign lord King James, of England, France, and Ireland the 1st, and of Scotland the 5th, Anno Domini 1620."

This compact was signed by each of the 41 males among the exiles, and the first seven names are those of John Carver, William Bradford, Edward Winslow, William Brewster, Isaac Allerton, Miles Standish, and John Alden; the latter being the first to step on shore when the boat landed at Plymouth, and the first, therefore, to set his foot on the Pilgrim Rock.

The first governor elected by the suffrages of all was John Carver, and the head of the first exploring party was Miles Standish. On the 13th of November the wives of the pilgrims were set on shore to wash, and a party of the men was formed to explore the interior. These ranged the woods for several days, and saw five Indians at a distance, but could not prevail on them to draw near. They found, however, a ship's kettle, some European garments, knives, pack-needles, and pieces of old iron, which were subsequently ascertained to be parts of the wreck of a French vessel driven on the coast. Some Indian dwellings were also found, but their inmates had all deserted.

The result of their investigations was not sufficiently encouraging to induce them to settle at Cape Cod, so that, after farther explorations, they determined on fixing themselves at the spot then called by the Indians Pawtuxet, where Plymouth now stands; and on the 11th of December, old style, corresponding with the 22d, or, in stricter accuracy, with the 21st of December, new style, 1620, they made their first landing on the Plymouth Rock. Their first care was to construct a shed or temporary house that should serve for the shelter of all while separate dwellings were building; and this shed, of 20 feet square, at which every individual laboured amid the most inclement weather, was completed in a few days.

After this the land was apportioned in lots of three poles in length and half a pole in breadth for each family's house and garden, which were to be built on each side of a uniform street, for better security against the Indians; and this street, ascending up from the water at right angles with the shore, was the Leyden-street of the old, as it continues to be of the existing town, though the original dwellings have been all replaced by larger and more substantial ones. The common dwelling, indeed, was burned down by fire so early as the 21st of January, 1621; and before April of the same year, disease had committed such ravages among their little band that only 55 survived out of the 101 that came out in the Mayflower. Among the deceased was Governor Carver, whose short term of authority had only endeared him the more to those over whom it was so mildly and equitably exercised.

Though he died, however, full of honours, and was remembered by all who survived him, it is already uncertain where his body was interred, and no stone or other monument either marks the place of his burial or records his virtues. The tradition is, that all the early victims were buried on a spot called Cole's Hill, near the beach, and that, at a subsequent period, when the Indians came among them, the survivors caused all the graves to be ploughed and sown over with corn, to prevent the Indians seeing them, and thence inferring the numbers of the dead, by which it was feared that they might infer the weakness of the settlement, and thus be induced to attack it in the confidence of victory.

It was not till the 16th of March, 1621, that the settlers had an interview with any native Indian, when a chief named Samoset, who had journeyed down from the country of Monhiggon, now the State of Maine, entered the settlement, and, advancing towards the place where he saw many of the settlers assembled, addressed them in broken English, saying, "Welcome! Englishmen; welcome! Englishmen," to the great surprise and joy of all who heard him. It appeared that he had learned from the captains of the English fishing vessels frequenting his coast sufficient of the language to make himself understood; and he communicated to the settlers the fact that, about four years before their landing here, a severe sickness had carried off all the native inhabitants, which accounted for the fewness of the Indians they had yet seen.

He farther represented that in the neighbourhood were still a large tribe called the Nausets, who were justly incensed against the English, as, only a few years ago, an English captain named Hunt (visiting this place under the orders of the celebrated Captain Smith, the first settler of Virginia) had taken on board 20 Indians from Pawtuxet and seven from the Nausets, and carried them off to Malaga in Spain, where he sold them as slaves at 20*l.* a head; so early in the history of this country had the cupidity of the English introduced the odious practice of kidnapping, and the atrocious traffic of the slave-trade.

On the 2d of April, 1621, the first treaty was made with the few Indians belonging to the tribe who formerly inhabited Pawtuxet; when the chief or sagamore, named Massasoit, with Quadequina, his brother, and others of their tribe, met the English settlers on an adjoining eminence called Watson's Hill. It was necessary, however, to offer presents to induce the Indians to treat, and the governor "sent Mr. Winslow to the chiefs with a pair of knives, a copper chain with a jewel in it for the king, and for Quadequina a knife, and a jewel to hang in his ear; a *pot of strong water* (probably ardent spirits), a quantity of biscuits, and some butter, all of which were well received;" so early in their intercourse with the Indians did the English introduce among them the fatal curse of intoxicating drinks. The record of the interview that followed this is sufficiently curious to be given entire.

"Winslow addressed Massasoit in the name of King James, assuring him that the king saluted him with words of love and peace, and did accept of him as his friend and ally; and that the governor desired to see him, and confirm a trade and peace with him as his next neighbour. Massasoit was well pleased with the speech, and, after eating and drinking, gave the remains to his people. He looked on Mr. Winslow's sword and armour with a desire to buy them, but he refused to gratify him. Massasoit now left Mr. Winslow in the custody of Quadequina, his brother, and came over the brook with twenty men, leaving all their bows and arrows behind them. Captain Standish and Mr. Williamson, with six musketeers, met the king at the brook, and each party saluted the other, when the king was conducted to a house then partly built,

where were placed a green rug and three or four cushions. Governor Carver now appeared with a drum and trumpet, and a few musketeers. After salutations, the governor kissed the king's hand, who in return kissed him, and they seated themselves; but the king all the time trembled for fear. The governor called for some strong water and drank to him, and he drank a copious draught, which made him sweat a long time after. Massasoit and his people having partaken of some fresh meat, the following terms of peace were mutually agreed to.

"1. That neither he nor any of his should injure or do hurt to any of the English. 2. If any of his did hurt to any of ours, he should send the offender, that we might punish him. 3. That if any of our tools were taken away when our people were at work, he should cause them to be restored; and if ours did harm to any of his, we should do the like to them. 4. If any did unjustly war against him, we would aid him; if any did war against us, he should aid us. 5. He should send to his neighbouring confederates to certify them of this, that they might not wrong us, but might be likewise comprised in the conditions of peace. 6. That when their men came they should leave their bows and arrows behind them, as we should do our pieces when we went to them. Lastly, that, doing thus, King James would esteem him as his friend and ally.

"The above treaty was pleasing to the sachem, and approved by his people. In his person the king was a lusty, able-bodied man, and in his countenance grave. His attire differed little from that of his people, except a great chain of beads of white bone about his neck. His face was painted with a dull red, like murry, and oiled, both head and face, so that he looked greasily. He had in his bosom, hanging in a string, a large long knife; he marvelled much at the trumpet, and made some attempts to sound it. All his followers were painted of divers colours; some were clothed with skins, and some were naked. Samoset and Squanti tarried all night with the English, and the king Massasoit and his people, with their wives and children, spent the night in the adjacent woods."

The first offence committed and punished among the English was that of John Billington, "who shipped on board the Mayflower in London, and was not of the company." He was charged with contempt of the captain's lawful commands, and with uttering opprobrious speeches; and, after being tried by the whole company, he was sentenced to have his neck and heels tied together; but on humbling himself and craving pardon, and its being his first offence, he was released before the full time for which he was sentenced had expired. Not long after, two servants of one of the Pilgrims were arraigned before the company for trial, having fought a duel with sword and dagger, in which both were wounded; and for this offence they were sentenced to have their head and heels tied together, and to remain in that situation for 24 hours without food or drink.

From this period onward the settlers made excursions into the interior, and from day to day strengthened their alliances with the native Indians around them, their intercourse being marked by many curious incidents expressive of the surprise felt by the Indians on seeing the persons, arms, and dresses of their new visitors.

The settlers had hitherto behaved with justice and generosity to the natives, and had thus progressively won their friendship and esteem to such an extent, that by the month of September, 1621, when they had not been more than nine months in the country, they obtained the assent of nine Indian sachems or chiefs to sign their declaration of allegiance to King James, the reigning sovereign of Great Britain, as their lawfully-acknowledged monarch, to whom they pledged their allegiance.

On the 9th of November in the same year, 1621, the *Fortune*, a small vessel of 55 tons burden, arrived at Cape Cod, bringing Mr. Cushman and 35 passengers to join the settlement. The re-enforcement was very seasonable; as, soon after their arrival, the Indians of the Naraganset tribe, who were long suspected of being hostile, sent a messenger to the English settlement with a bundle of arrows tied together with a snake's skin. This the English received as a war-challenge; and Governor Bradford assured the chief sachem, Cannonicus, that if they loved war they might begin it, as he was not unprepared. He accordingly sent back by the same Indian messenger the snake's skin stuffed with gunpowder and bullets, with the verbal message of defiance. This produced the desired effect; for the Indians were so afraid that they would not touch the snake's skin, nor even receive it, but sent it back to the English unopened.

The Indians, from the earliest period of the English having any intercourse with them, had shown a great propensity to thieving; and one of the instances in which they evinced this propensity is thus amusingly related in the annals of the settlers. It occurred in the month of January, 1622, little more than a year after the first landing of the Pilgrims.

"Captain Standish made frequent successful excursions during the winter to traffic for corn and furs. While his shallop lay in a creek at Nauset, an Indian stole from him some beads, scissors, and other trifles. Standish complained to the sachem, and threatened him and his people with punishment unless they were restored. The next day the sachem, with a number of his men, appeared to make satisfaction. First, by way of salutation, he thrust out his tongue to its full length, and drew it across the captain's wrist and hand to his fingers' ends. Next he attempted to bow the knee in imitation of the English, having been instructed by Squanto. All his men followed his example, but in so awkward a manner that the English could scarce refrain from breaking out in open laughter. After this ceremony he delivered back the stolen goods, assuring the captain that he had punished the thief. He then directed the women to make some bread for the company, and expressed his sorrow for the theft, and was glad to be reconciled."

There were among these, however, many who possessed merit themselves, and who could appreciate it in others; as, on the occasion of the death of Massasoit, one of the leading chiefs, the following disinterested eulogy was passed on him by one of his nation:

"While I live," said this sorrowing native, "I shall never see his like

among the Indians; he was no liar, he was not bloody and cruel, like other Indians. In anger and passion he was soon reclaimed, easy to be reconciled towards such as had offended him, ruled by reason, not scorning the advice of mean men; governing his men better with few strokes than others did with many, truly loving where he did love, and fearing that the English had not a faithful friend left among the Indians."

In March, 1623, there arrived other vessels to join the colony, the Ann and the Little James, the last of which was only 44 tons, and yet conveyed 60 passengers, as well as goods and merchandise; and when one considers the class of vessels now used for the Atlantic voyage, rarely ever less than 300 tons, it is impossible not to admire the hardihood and courage of these early adventurers, in sailing across this sea with 60 passengers in so small a bark as the Little James.

In the autumn of this year their provisions became so exhausted that the whole colony suffered the greatest distress for want of food; they lived almost wholly on fish, without even bread; and on one occasion were reduced to the small quantity of one pint of corn among their whole number, which, when it came to be divided, furnished each with five grains only! In commemoration of this distress, it has been the custom ever since to place on each plate at the annual dinner on "Forefathers' Day" five single grains of parched corn, by which the guests are made to feel how great must have been the privation of the Pilgrim Fathers when these constituted their whole stock of food.

In the first years of their settlement they had enjoyed community of property in every respect; but in this year, 1623, the common stock was divided among the members of the community, and certain lots of land were assigned to each individual, so that, after this, all laboured on their own account.

It was in this year also that the trial by jury was first ordained to be observed in legal proceedings, according to the following ordinance, which is thus entered in the records of the colony:

"It is ordained, this 17th day of December, A.D. 1623, by this court, there held, that all criminal facts, and also all matters of trespass and debts between man and man, shall be tried by the verdict of twelve honest men, to be impanelled by authority, in form of a jury upon their oaths."

In 1624 Mr. Edward Winslow was sent to England, as an agent for the colony, to procure supplies of provisions and clothing; and, after being absent six months, he returned with the requisite supplies, including, among other things, three heifers and a bull, "which," say the records, "were the first neat cattle imported into Plymouth, the settlers being wholly destitute of milk for the first four years."

About this time a person named Oldham, having behaved with great treachery and wickedness, was convicted of the crimes laid to his charge, and banished from the colony; but, returning again

after a short period, though he had made full confession of his guilt, and expressed contrition for his offences, he was compelled to undergo this punishment :

"He was made to run the gauntlet through a double file of armed men, and each man was ordered to give him a blow as he passed with the butt-end of his musket, saying at the same time, 'Go and mend your manners;' he was then conducted to his boat, which lay at the water-side, for his departure."

The first execution for crime that took place in the colony was in 1630, when John Billington was indicted for murder, found guilty, and hung. Governor Bradford says of him :

"He was one of the profanest among us. He was from London, and I know not by what means shuffled into our company. We used all due means about his trial; he was found guilty, both by grand and petit jury; and we took the advice of Mr. Winthrop and others, the ablest gentlemen in the Massachusetts Bay, who all concurred with us that he ought to die, and the land be purged from blood."

In 1633 the colony was visited by a severe sickness, which carried off great numbers; and it is worthy of remark, that this was preceded, in the year before, by the appearance of what are now thought to have been locusts, but which are thus described by the writers of that day :

"The spring before this sickness there was a numerous company of flies, which were like for bigness unto wasps and humble-bees; they came out of little holes in the ground, and did eat up the green things, and made such a constant yelling noise as made the woods ring of them, and to deafen the hearers. They were not heard nor seen by the English in the country before this time; but the Indians said that sickness would follow, and so it did."

It was in 1636 that the first code of laws was drawn up and settled for the colony, as, previous to this time, the community was governed by what the rulers and jurors deemed to be the moral law, as taught in the Old and New Testament. Under this patriarchal rule we find, between 1632 and 1640, the following entries of offences and punishments in the records :

"Frances Sprague, for drinking over much, fined 10 shillings. Frances Billingham and John Phillips, for drinking* tobacco in the highway, fined 12 shillings each. Stephen Hopkins presented for selling beer for twopence per quart, which was worth but one penny. John Barns, for Sabbath-breaking, was fined 30 shillings, and set one hour in the stocks. Thomas Clark, for selling a pair of boots and spurs for 15 shillings, which cost him but 10 shillings, was fined 30 shillings. William Ady, for working on Sunday, was severely whipped at the post."

In 1636 a body of laws was adopted by the court, under the title of the "General Fundamentals," and this style of enactment was observed in them :

"We, the associates of the Colony of New-Plymouth, coming hither

* The term "drinking," no doubt, has here the meaning of smoking, and not chewing; and it is remarkable, that with the Arabs, Turks, Persians, and Hindus, the same mode of expression is used, of "drinking tobacco" for smoking it.

as free-born subjects of the kingdom of England, endowed with all and singular the privileges belonging to such, being assembled, do enact, ordain, and constitute," &c.

It recognised the democratic principle, that no laws should be binding unless passed by the representatives of the community; and that there should be a free election annually of the governor, deputy-governor, and assistants, by the votes of the freemen. At the same time, in conformity with the prejudices of the age, they classed among the crimes to be punished with death "rebellion against the king, murder, and solemn compaction or conversing with the devil, by way of witchcraft or the like!"

As an instance of the rigour with which these laws were executed, it may be mentioned, that in 1638, four young men-servants, who had absconded from their masters at Plymouth and gone into the woods, having murdered a single Indian for the purpose of robbing him of his wampum or string of beads—which was the current money of these times—they were subsequently apprehended, tried, and, confessing their guilt, were all hung. Some of the laws or ordinances passed about the same period, as found in the records, are such as to excite a smile, especially the following:

"It is ordered, that if any man make a motion of marriage to any man's daughter or maid without first obtaining leave of her parents or master, he shall be punished, according to the nature of the offence, by a fine not exceeding five pounds, or corporeal punishment, or both, at the discretion of the bench.

"Any person denying the Scriptures to be a rule of life, shall suffer corporeal punishment at discretion of the magistrates, so as it shall not extend to life or limb.

"This year the General Court of Massachusetts passed the following order for the regulation of the ladies' dresses. 'No garment shall be made with short sleeves; and such as have garments with short sleeves shall not wear the same, unless they cover the arm to the wrist; and hereafter, no person whatever shall make any garment for women with sleeves more than half an ell wide (twenty-two and a half inches.)'

"It was ordered that *profane swearing* should be punished by sitting in the stocks three hours, or by imprisonment. For *telling lies*, a fine of ten shillings, or the stocks for two hours for each lie."

In 1643 occurred the first union of the New-England colonies, when Connecticut and Massachusetts, including New-Haven, Boston, and Plymouth, formed themselves into the United Colonies of New-England; and in this, as has been well observed, may be seen the earliest germe of the great general confederacy of the United States. The same severe and rigorous discipline, however, was still maintained in the local government of Plymouth, as we find by the following entries in the records of 1650:

"Nathaniel Basset and Joseph Prior were fined 20s. each for disturbing the church in Duxbury; and at the next town-meeting or training-day, both were to be bound to a post for two hours in some public place, with a paper on their heads, on which their crime was to be written in capital letters. Miss J. Boulton, for slandering, was sentenced to sit in the stocks during the court's pleasure, and a paper, writ-

ten with capital letters, to be made fast unto her all the time of her sitting there; all of which was accordingly performed.

"Jonathan Coventry, of Marshfield, was presented for making a motion of marriage to Catharine Bradbury without her master's consent. L. Ramsgate was presented for lying, slander, and defaming her brother-in-law. Joanna, the wife of O. Mosely, was presented for beating her husband, and getting her children to help her, and bidding them knock him on the head, and wishing his victuals might choke him. Punished at home."

In 1654, Oliver Cromwell, the Protector of the Commonwealth of England, granted a commission to Governor Winslow, which original document, on parchment, is preserved among the relics of pilgrim days, in the Pilgrim Hall at Plymouth.

"The first notice of horses on record is in 1644, when a mare belonging to the estate of Stephen Hopkins was appraised at 6*l.* sterling. In 1647, in the inventory of Thomas Bliss, a colt was appraised at 4*l.* sterling. In Joseph Holliway's inventory in the same year, one mare and a year-old colt were appraised at 14*l.* In June, 1657, the Colony Court passed an act, that every freeholder who kept three mares, and would keep one horse for military service, should be freed from all military service, training, and watching. While destitute of horses, it was not uncommon for people to ride on bulls; and there is a tradition, that when John Alden went to Cape Cod to be married to Priscilla Mullens, he covered his bull with a handsome piece of broadcloth, and rode on his back. On his return, he seated his bride on the bull, and led the uncouth animal by a rope fixed in the nose-ring."

The persecution of the Quakers by the very men who had left their own country expressly to enjoy religious freedom, is a part of the conduct of the Pilgrim Fathers which it is very difficult to justify, or even excuse. It was in 1665 that the following ordinance against them was passed:

"It was ordered by the court, that in case any shall bring in any Quaker, Ranter, or other notorious heretic, either by land or water, into any part of this government, he shall forthwith, upon order of any one magistrate, return them to the place from whence they came, or clear the government of them, on the penalty of paying a fine of 20*s.* for every week that they shall stay in the government after warning. A more severe law was afterward passed. 'It is therefore enacted by the court and authority thereof, that no Quaker, or person commonly so called, be entertained by any person or persons within this government, under penalty of 5*l.* for every such default, or be whipped.'"

The Quakers of this period were, however, very different persons from those who bear the same name now; and who, as a sect or class, may fairly be ranked among the most intelligent, orderly, upright, meek, and charitable of men; and it will be sufficient to give a single example of the fierce and vindictive spirit by which some of the early Quakers were animated, to show that the Pilgrims had great provocations from them, to say the least. The case of Humphrey Norton is sufficient to establish this. This man, when sentenced to be removed from the colony, addressed the governor, Thomas Prince, on the bench, by saying:

“ ‘Prince, thou lyest ; Thomas, thou art a malicious man ; thy clamorous tongue I regard no more than the dust under my feet ; and thou art like a scolding woman, as thou pratest and deridest me.’ Norton afterward addressed the governor by letter in such language as, ‘Thomas Prince, thou hast bent thy heart to work wickedness, and with thy tongue hast set forth deceit ; thou imaginest mischief upon thy bed, and hatchest thy hatred in thy secret chamber ; the strength of darkness is over thee, and a malicious mouth hast thou opened against God and his anointed, and with thy tongue and lips hast thou uttered perverse things ; thou hast slandered the innocent by railing, lying, and false accusations, and with thy barbarous heart hast thou caused their blood to be shed,’ &c., &c. ‘John Alden is to thee like unto a packhorse, whereupon thou layest thy beastly bag ; cursed are all they that have a hand therein ; the cry of vengeance will pursue thee day and night.’ After continuing in this strain at great length, he closed with, ‘The anguish and pain that will enter thy veins will be like gnawing worms lodging betwixt thy heart and liver. When these things come upon thee, and thy back is bowed down with pain, in that day and hour thou shalt know to thy grief that prophets of the Lord God we are, and the God of vengeance is our God.’”

Equally difficult is it to justify or excuse the conduct of the Pilgrim Fathers in introducing into their colony the practice of selling criminals as slaves ; and that this was the fact so early as the year 1678, appears by the following entry in the Old Colony records of that year.

“This may certify that certain Indians near Sandwich, whose names are Canootus, and Symon, and Joell, being apprehended on their confession, convicted of feloniously breaking open a house, and stealing from a chest of Zechariah Allen, of Sandwich, twenty-five pounds’ in money, they having lost or embezzled said money, and no other way appearing how he should be satisfied for his loss, the colony have sentenced the above-named Indians to be perpetual slaves, and empower said Allen to make sale of them in New-England, or elsewhere, as his slaves for the term of their lives.”

In 1685 the court began to employ some of the more intelligent of the Indian chiefs as magistrates ; and when it became necessary for them to issue warrants for the apprehension of offenders, it was required that they should do so in writing, and in English, which most of them understood very imperfectly ; yet they contrived to express themselves intelligently, though with an unprofessional brevity, of which the following copy of a warrant, issued by one Hihoudi, an Indian magistrate, to a constable named Peter Waterman, for the apprehension of an offender named Jeremy Wicket, is an example.

“I, HIHOU DI—You, Peter Waterman—Jeremy Wicket—Quick you take him—Fast you hold him—Strait you bring him !

“Before me, HIHOU DI.”

In 1692 Plymouth ceased to exist as a separate colony, and was then incorporated with Boston, Salem, and the other towns of Massachusetts, under the new charter procured for that colony in this year, and brought out by Sir William Phipps as its governor. The wages of labour was even at this time so low, that in 1698

"The town of Plymouth agreed with Abraham Jackson to ring the bell, and sweep the meeting-house, and see to locking the doors and fastening the windows, for one year, for one pound and ten shillings."

In 1726, wild cats were so abundant in the town, that a reward of ten shillings per head was voted by the court for every head brought to the assessor, and many pounds were paid annually for this purpose for some time. In 1738 the following are recorded among the laws and incidents of the town :

"The town voted that threepence per head shall be paid out of the town treasury for every full-grown rat that may be killed in the town, threepence for every blackbird, and sixpence for every crow. And in 1744 a vote passed, that every male head of a family shall procure ten grown rats' heads or ten blackbirds' heads ; and each male head of a family who shall fail shall be assessed the sum of sixpence, old tenor, per head, for each head that he shall fall short of said number ; and the assessors are ordered to add each delinquent's fine to his next town tax.

"A man named Crimble was indicted at Plymouth for forging a bond, but, for want of evidence, was only convicted for a *cheat*, and was ordered to wear said bond, with a piece of paper over it, with the word 'cheat' written thereon, and to stand on the courthouse steps half an hour. This year square-toed shoes went out of fashion, and buckles began to be worn."

In 1765, when the passing of the Stamp Act for the colonies in the British Parliament excited such opposition at Boston and elsewhere, the town of Plymouth participated in it to the fullest extent, and the sentiments entertained by the descendants of the Pilgrim Fathers were worthy of the sires from whence they sprung. In their instructions to the representatives in the Legislature, they use this bold and manly language :

"We likewise," say the instructions, "to avoid disgracing the memories of our ancestors, as well as the reproaches of our own consciences and the curses of posterity, recommend it to you to obtain, if possible, in the honourable House of Representatives in this province, full and explicit assertions of our rights, and to have the same entered on their public records, that all generations yet to come may be convinced that we have not only a just sense of our rights and liberties, but that we never (with submission to Divine Providence) will be slaves to any power on earth."

Plymouth was among the earliest of the towns in America that took an interest in promoting the temperance reformation, which has since made such progress in every part of the Union, although there is no reason to believe that Plymouth was more afflicted than many other towns by the evil it sought to remedy. But the following record of the year 1816, dated the 17th of May in that year, is honourable to the wisdom and philanthropy of those who originated the inquiry and made the report, which is adverted to in the following extract :

"A committee, chosen by the town, to make inquiry into the conduct of retailers of spirituous liquors, reported 'that they are deeply impressed with the magnitude of the evil, and with the serious consequences that will probably result to the rising generation if some seasonable check

cannot be put to the practice. Aware of the odium that attaches itself to those who, from official duty, are led to oppose the views and emoluments of interested individuals, we would not leave to the fathers of the town to encounter the hydra alone; we would therefore recommend to every honest, discreet, and sober-minded inhabitant of the town to set his face against the practice, as he would regard the interest, prosperity, and comfort of his fellow-creatures, and would preserve the rising generation from moral pollution and degeneracy; and that they would unite their efforts with those of the selectmen and civil officers of the town, to discountenance and suppress this alarming, this crying sin. They would also recommend that the selectmen, overlooking all past transgressions in this respect, be enjoined peremptorily and perseveringly to withhold their approbation from any person whom they shall hereafter know, or very strongly suspect, to be guilty of a violation of the law. Your committee hope they shall be excused if they exceed the bounds of their commission when they express their firm conviction that a systematic perseverance in discharging the painful duty of putting under guardianship such citizens as are notoriously intemperate, will be one remedy, among others, of the evil in question."

This attention to the removal of the causes of intemperance has been continued to the present time; and one among many numerous benefits arising from this is seen in the fewness of crimes or offences, there being at present not a single tenant of the jail of Plymouth, either civil or criminal. The jailer and turnkey have nothing to do; and two large distilleries, which formerly supplied the surrounding country with rum, have been discontinued for want of custom, and their buildings are also at present unoccupied.

In 1820, the second centennial celebration of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers took place at Plymouth, and on this occasion was founded The Pilgrim's Society. This was incorporated by the Legislature of the state, and resolutions were passed to build a Pilgrim Hall, to be devoted to the annual festivities accompanying the celebration. In 1824 this edifice was erected; and a portion of the Rock, which was separated in 1774 from the parent block on the beach, and drawn by oxen to the Liberty-pole Square on the breaking out of the Revolution, was now brought to the front of the Pilgrim Hall, and there enclosed within the iron railing that now surrounds it.

There are at present no Indians living in the town of Plymouth, though there is a small tribe, or remnant of one, in the neighbourhood. So recently as the year 1803, however, there were 14 males and 35 females, adults, and 15 children under age; and their lands within the township amounted to 2683 acres, which were valued at 14,140 dollars. These Indians retained most of the characteristics of their ancestors, and were dissolute, treacherous, and ferocious. The dwindling away of their race, however melancholy as matter of sentiment, is undoubtedly a benefit to the general community, as their places are supplied by a better and more improvable class of beings.

CHAPTER LI.

Disadvantageous Position of the Town.—Causes of this Exception to a general Rule.—First House.—First Burial-ground.—Cole's Hill.—Forefathers' Rock, the first Spot of Landing.—Population.—Pursuits.—General Equality.—Churches.—Grave of Thomas Clarke, Mate of the Mayflower.—Prospect from the Summit of the Hill.—Courthouse.—Pilgrim Hall.—Museum.—Sargent's Picture.—Landing of the Pilgrims.—Sword of Standish.—Oriental Inscription and Talisman.—Helmet of King Philip, the Indian Chief.—Chair of Governor Carver.—Charter of Oliver Cromwell.—Hotels.—Banks.—Newspapers of Plymouth.—Slow Advance of the Town.—Causes of this.—Specimens of the Poetry of the Pilgrims' Days.—Dr. Thatcher, the Historian of Plymouth.—Miss White, a Descendant of the Pilgrims.—Antiquities in her Cabinet.—Parting from Friends at Plymouth.—Return to New-Bedford.—Journey to Providence and Stonington.—Voyage by Steam-vessel to New-York.

THE situation of Plymouth is one of the very few exceptions to the admirable combination of local advantages which is generally seen in the sites of American ports and cities. The reason of this is obvious; the Pilgrim Fathers who first settled here had no choice; for, being driven unexpectedly and unintentionally, as far as they were themselves concerned, upon this part of the coast, at a season of the year when farther exploration was impracticable, they were obliged to content themselves with the spot on which their lot was thus cast.

On the certificates of membership given to those who enrol themselves in the Pilgrim Society, is an engraving, in which the dreariness and destitution of the first landing of the Pilgrims, and the snows and gloom of winter, are attempted to be portrayed, and of which the following is a faithful transcript.



The town lies along the edge of a group of round and steep

hills, having before it a harbour or bay, which is formed by a long low beach of sand running almost parallel to it in front, and between it and the sea. Though this secures smooth water for the small vessels anchoring here, yet, it being what is called a dry harbour—that is, all the water leaving it at ebb tide, and exhibiting an extensive flat of sand completely dry—it is not adapted for ships of large size, and will never be frequented as a good harbour: a defect which is fatal to its maritime growth. The surrounding country at the back of the town is either stony or sandy, and affords little inducement to agricultural pursuits; while the thinness of the population, and the scantiness of water-power and fuel, offer little hope of its ever being a favourable position for manufactures.

The town can hardly be said to have any plan. The principal street runs along nearly parallel to the water, at a height of about fifty feet above its level; and from this smaller streets lead down over the declivity, at right angles with the larger one, to the wharves, along which the small vessels trading to the port are moored. The first street laid out by the Pilgrims was called by them Leyden-street, in honour of the Dutch city in which they had found an asylum before they sailed for these shores. This street still exists under its old name; and in it, near the water, is pointed out the spot where the first house was erected by the exiles in the Mayflower, when they were obliged to make one building serve the purpose of a general dwelling for the whole. This street leads downward by a spot called Cole's Hill; a mound, on the sides of which the first governor, Carver, and the fifty of his associates who died within the first year, were buried. Their graves were subsequently ploughed over by the survivors, and corn planted on them, to obliterate all traces of their burial, in order to conceal from the Indians the extent of their mortality, lest, acting on this knowledge, and knowing the amount of their loss, the Indians should be led to attack them and drive them out.

Not far from this spot, and close to the edge of the sea, is the identical rock on which the Pilgrims first set their feet when they landed from the Mayflower; but, strange to say, so little veneration was felt for this, or for anything else connected with their history, till about sixty years ago, that this spot, which is still called "Forefathers' Rock," was enclosed and built in as part of a long wharf, extending out into the sea. At present its surface is just level with the ordinary road, and carts drive to and fro over it every day, it being so completely obliterated that, unless some guide acquainted with the spot should accompany the visiter, to tell him where it lay, he might be standing on the surface of the rock without knowing it, and be looking about for the hallowed spot in vain.

In the actual "town" of Plymouth there are about 3000 inhabitants, but within the limits of the "township" there are more than



5000 ; and at Duxbury, an equally ancient settlement about ten miles off, on the coast, there are nearly 5000 inhabitants also.

The residents of Plymouth are chiefly engaged in the mackerel and cod fishery, coasting navigation, and some few local manufactures. These are, principally, one cotton factory, a rolling mill and nail factory, two or three forges, a blast furnace, and some ropewalks for the manufacture of cordage and twine. The condition of the people appears to be more equal here than even in American towns generally ; there are none very rich, and none at all actually poor. There is a jail, which has not had an inmate for many months, and is now to let ; and there is a poorhouse, but it has no occupants ; while riots, crimes, and wants of any pressing nature are comparatively unknown. It may give some idea of the general prudence and carefulness of the inhabitants, to mention a most remarkable fact, namely, that while, in American cities and towns generally, fires are of such common occurrence that a week rarely passes without many houses being destroyed, and never perhaps a year, here, in Plymouth, it is now just one hundred and twenty years since any dwelling-house has been destroyed or burned by fire !

Of the public buildings there are no less than six churches to the town population of 3000, which is one to every 500 inhabitants ; and in the township there are altogether eight. The Unitarians, here as in Boston, take the lead in numbers, wealth, and influence ; and their church, in which the annual oration was delivered, is by far the handsomest in the place. Immediately behind it is the steep round hill chosen by the Pilgrims for their second burying-ground, Cole's Hill, nearer the water, being the first ; and here the gravestone of Thomas Clarke, mate of the Mayflower, who died in 1697, at the age of ninety-eight, is still legible ; while the

number buried since that period on this hill (which is now the general cemetery of the place) far exceeds the whole number of the present population of this town. From the summit of this burial-ground are seen several other and similar hills, of the same rounded shape, varying from 150 to 200 feet in height, and particularly one on the opposite or south side of the brook, which runs down nearly through the centre of the town, and is called Watson's Hill, being the spot on which the first treaty with the Indians was made, on the 2d of April, 1621.

The courthouse and the Pilgrim Hall may also both be numbered among the public buildings of Plymouth. The former is a substantial brick edifice, forming one side of an open space called Court Square. It contains, within, a spacious and handsome courtroom, with all the requisite offices; and a fireproof repository, in which are preserved the Old Colony records from the year 1623, when the first division of lands and cattle took place, up to the present time, neatly bound and chronologically arranged.

The Pilgrim Hall is a Doric building, with a portico of four pillars, the edifice being seventy feet in length by forty in breadth, and thirty-three feet high. It consists of an area story, in which are a large schoolroom for girls, and several requisite offices. The main story is devoted to the Hall, which is lofty and well-proportioned, lighted on both sides. At its entrance are two anterooms, used for the library and museum; and above these are two drawing-rooms, communicating with the orchestra or gallery, which are used for refreshments. It was erected in the year 1824, at the expense of the Pilgrim Society, and cost about 10,000 dollars.

The great attraction of the Pilgrim Hall is the noble picture presented to it by the artist, Colonel Sargent, of Boston, who studied under Benjamin West at the Royal Academy in London, and whose genius and talent are admirably displayed in this magnificent production of his pencil. It was at first painted as an historical picture for sale, and the price of it was fixed at 3000 dollars, or 600*l.* sterling; but no one being ready to purchase it at that sum, the artist very liberally presented it to the Pilgrim Society for the adornment of their hall; and never was private munificence more appropriately bestowed. The size of the picture is fifteen feet in length by thirteen in height, and all the figures are above the size of life. The costume of the men is that worn by the cavaliers and military officers in the time of Charles the First; that of the women is free and graceful, without being peculiar to that or any other time, but such as a skilful artist would select, to unite freedom of drapery with simplicity of style.

The scene represents a snow-covered rock, with a bare and leafless tree, and all the adjuncts of the severest winter. In the offing is seen the Mayflower at anchor, of the antique shape of the vessels of that day. The shallop or long-boat, with shattered mast

and rigging, and an English union-jack at the flagstaff, raised upon the broken masthead, lies alongside the ice-bound rock and below it, while in the shallop are seen a seaman at the helm, and a passenger and his wife in the bow, in the attitude of fervent thankfulness, with clasped hands and uplifted eyes, in gratitude for their safe arrival at the shore.

On the rock, and in the centre of the picture, is seen the manly figure of Governor Carver, whom the Pilgrims had spontaneously chosen as their first governor before they quitted the ship. He is dressed in the military costume before described, with open neck, short beard, helmet, long gloves, leather belt and large buckle, short sword and cross handle. Behind him are Bradford, Alden, and Allerton, similarly arrayed, and all with noble countenances. On the left of the central group is seen the venerable figure of Brewster, the ruling elder of the Pilgrims, with a flowing gray beard, and dark but ample cloak, covering both his body and his head, just showing his grave but commanding features. Near him is the figure of White, another of the leaders, bearing in his arms the interesting child Peregrine, who was born on board the Mayflower during the voyage, or, at least, before the landing was effected, and his figure is peculiarly striking and effective.

On the right of the principal group are the figures of Winslow and his wife, with others, male and female, of the party; and close to the governor, bending in submission and admiration, yet advancing in confidence, is the figure of Samoset, the Indian chief, who was the first to give the Pilgrims the salute of welcome. Beyond the Indian is seen the head and bust of the gallant Standish; and on the shoulder of Governor Carver is leaning his wife, in an attitude of affectionate reliance, with a countenance full of the sweetest beauty and resignation, her extended and uplifted hand expressing at once admiration and apprehension combined. A group of little children benumbed with cold, and a faithful dog looking up among them in mute wonder at the strange Indian in his wild, native costume, completes a picture of the highest character for genius in its composition, skill in drawing, force and harmony in colouring, and subduing power in the depth of the moral impression which it leaves on the beholder.

I know not that I ever looked so long and so often on any picture with such unbroken, and even with increased satisfaction, as on this; and I cannot but believe that, if it were exhibited in London, it would have crowds of admirers of all ranks and classes. I was glad to learn that a copy of it, on a small scale, had recently been taken by Mr. Herring, an artist of New-York, for the purpose of having it engraved, as part of a series of pictorial illustrations of the History of the United States; and I shall rejoice to learn that the engraving is worthy the painting; if so, it cannot fail to be admired.

In the Museum of the Pilgrim Hall are many relics and curiosities well worth inspection; among them the following deserve mention:

1. The sword of Captain Standish, having on its blade, near the hilt, an inscription in characters which none of the learned of this country have yet been able to interpret, as the characters are wholly unknown to them, being neither Roman, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, nor Sanscrit. On a careful inspection of them, they appeared to me to be Sassanian or Parthian, of the time of Sapor and Heraclius; as they resemble many of the characters seen in the inscriptions on the rocks of Persia, near Persepolis, attributed to the age of the Sassanides, and which the late learned Baron Silvestre de Sacy, of Paris, was the only Orientalist who succeeded in deciphering. In addition to this are certain signs, within circles, which strikingly resemble the cabalistic emblems used in talismans or charms by the Eastern nations. Under one of the circles is the date 1149, from which it may be inferred that if the blade is of Eastern origin, it was taken probably by some English knight in the Crusades, and brought to England, the date 1149 being imprinted to mark the year in which it was taken. If not of Eastern origin, it might be one of the famed Toledo blades, manufactured in imitation of an Eastern sword, containing the impress of some Oriental inscription and talisman, to increase its value in the estimation of the curious or superstitious, and the date be that of its manufacture. In either case, the sword would be 471 years old before it came to this country, and might have been purchased by Standish in England, as old swords are now, by men curious in these weapons; for swords, when not ill-used or neglected, will last a thousand years and more.

2. The identical cap worn by King Philip, the celebrated Indian chief, who reigned during the period of what is called King Philip's war in this part of Massachusetts. It is in the shape of an ancient Greek helmet, and was worn with plumes. It is curiously wrought in the manner of network, and interwoven with the feathers of some red bird, so that it must have looked peculiarly warlike, when fresh and bright, on the head of an Indian warrior.

3. An antique chair, used by Governor Carver for purposes of public ceremony, and probably very ancient before it was brought from England.

4. The original charter to the colony of Plymouth, written on parchment, granted by Oliver Cromwell.

In front of the portico of the hall is an oval space, enclosed with a rich iron railing, within which is deposited a large portion of the rock on which the Pilgrims landed, taken from the spot near the water's edge, and conveyed up here for better preservation after the hall was built. On it is painted, in large figures, the date 1620; and as the rock is of granite, it may endure for centuries.

The railing was placed around it in June, 1835; it consists of an ellipse forty-one feet in perimeter formed of wrought iron bars five feet high, resting on a base of hammered granite. The heads of the perpendicular bars represent harpoons and boat-hooks alternately, and the whole is embellished with emblematic figures of cast iron. The base of the railing is studded with representations of marine shells, placed alternately reversed. The upper part of the railing is encircled with a wreath of iron castings, in imitation of heraldry curtains, fringed with festoons; of these there are forty-one, leaving the names in bas-relief of the forty-one Pilgrim Fathers who signed the compact, while in the cabin of the Mayflower, at Cape Cod, in 1620.

The schools in Plymouth are of three classes: the primary school, the common school, and the high school; there is one of each class for boys, and another for girls, under competent teachers, so that there are no children in the town who have not within their reach the means of a good education.

There are two hotels, one called the Old Colony, and the other the Pilgrim House. There are two banks also, one of which is called the Old Colony Bank. Of the two newspapers, one of which is Whig and the other Democratic, the names are in the same manner calculated to keep alive ancient and local associations, one of them being called the Old Colony Memorial, the other the Plymouth Rock.

Though less advance has taken place in Plymouth than in any other town in the United States, compared with the period that has elapsed since its first settlement, yet this is clearly owing to the absence of those local advantages which are in other places found so favourable to navigation, manufactures, and commerce. This great defect of its position has been already shown to arise from the necessity under which the first settlers were placed of making this the place of their abode. The town has partaken, however, of the general intellectual improvement of the country; and the Pilgrim Fathers, if they could arise from the dead, and look around upon the spot which they first saw as a wild and wood-covered tract, would see it now thickly studded with dwellings, churches, schools, banks, hotels, halls, and manufactories, with two newspapers, a good circulating library, and all the elements necessary for enlarging the understanding and cultivating the taste of its inhabitants.

As a specimen of the literary compositions of the Forefathers' age, the following lines, written on the death of Governor Bradford, in 1657, and preserved among the records of those by-gone days, may be cited:

"The month of May, by nine of the clock,
A precious one God out of Plymouth took,
Governor Bradford then expired; his breath
Was called away by force of cruel Death."

But it has been well observed that the rude rhymes of the Pilgrims will find an ample apology with all who consider the circumstances and the literature of their age, for the glorious deeds of their lives are more than a compensation for the feeble strains of their verses. "Hitherto," says Camden, "will our sparkified youth laugh at their great-grandfather English, who had more care to *doe* well than to *speake* minion-like, and left more glory to us by their exployting of great *acts*, than we shall *doe* by our forging of new *words* and uncuth *phrases*."

The last visits we paid in Plymouth were to two of its living antiquities: Dr. Thatcher, the best historian of the place, aged eighty-five, and Miss White, a speaking record of past times, aged ninety-one. Dr. Thatcher had been attached to the American army as a surgeon during the whole of the Revolutionary war; he was personally acquainted with most of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; he knew General Washington intimately, and was present at the execution of Major André as a spy; he had all the vigour of mind and all the enthusiasm which an antiquary requires, and felt as much delight as ever in the study of his favourite subjects.

Miss White was a most remarkable old lady; a descendant of the Pilgrim father William White, whose son Peregrine was born on board the Mayflower at sea. She received us reclining on her bed, but neatly dressed, as for ten years past she has had but a partial use of her limbs for walking. Her face, however, was remarkably free from the wrinkles that usually accompany so great an age; her features were so pleasing as to indicate the possession of great beauty when young, and she had not a gray hair on her head. Her hair was as brown, though not quite so full, as that of a woman of twenty-five; and her cheerful smile, firm voice, and intelligent conversation made it difficult to believe in what was, however, beyond all doubt, that she was really ninety-one years of age. She described her sight as perfectly good; and her constant occupation of knitting, sewing, or reading had never yet relaxed or become painful.

The room in which she lived was in a house more than 200 years old, and one of the earliest of those built in the colony. It was of wood, but constructed with great strength, and the exact pattern of an English house of the same period: a central door, low, but wide, with a large handle-shaped brass knocker (of which we saw more in Plymouth than in any other town), with a broad entrance hall, and rooms on each side. The house was two stories in height, but the ceilings were very low; and across those of the larger rooms extended a thick and heavy beam of wood laid flat, and not endwise, as in modern buildings.

Miss White's room was called "the cabin of the Mayflower;" and it was certainly the most perfect cabinet of antiquities we had

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yet seen. The chair used by Governor Carver on board the *Mayflower*, made of old English oak, with the staple for lashing it to the ship's deck in stormy weather, was a prominent article in the furniture: the other chairs were of the old, high-backed English fashion, the seats stuffed with hair, the wood of dark mahogany, the covering of striped black stuff. The old chest of drawers, with fanciful brass handles; the oak-framed, horizontal-paned glass over the chimneypiece; the little lion-pawed mahogany pier-table; the perpendicular and narrow oak-framed pier-glass between the front windows, with the dark green watered moreen curtains; and the family arms of the Whites and the Howlands, both Pilgrim Fathers, hanging over the mantelpiece, framed and glazed, as issued from the *Heralds' College* in London, carried one back so completely to the old English country mansions of past centuries, that it was difficult to feel one's self in the New World, and among a yet infant people.

We indulged ourselves with a long visit to this venerable and deeply-interesting lady, and received quite as much pleasure from her lively and agreeable conversation as she herself seemed to derive from the visit of strangers, especially as my wife and son were both present, and answered the many inquiries made of them on points that interested her deeply.

Our leave-taking of the families of Plymouth was cordial and agreeable in the extreme. We had attended two large parties made for us while here, and interchanged several more social visits. Great regret was evidently felt at our short stay; the lectures were closed with more enthusiastic approbation than it is usual for American audiences to bestow; and we parted with many a hope that we should visit Plymouth again.

On Thursday, the 27th of December, we left Plymouth for New-Bedford in an extra-coach; and, after halting an hour to take refreshments at the house of our friends Captain and Mrs. Lumbard, at Rochester, we reached Fairhaven at two o'clock, remained there to dine with our friends Captain and Mrs. Adams, and in the evening went to New-Bedford to deliver a lecture for the benefit of the Bethel and Port Society, as its funds had fallen into arrear, and it was thought desirable to make an effort, while the feeling of the public was strongly alive to its importance, to pay off its debts, which the proceeds of the lecture and the assistance of its best friends were likely to accomplish.

On Friday, the 28th, we left New-Bedford on our way to New-York, and travelled in an extra-coach about twenty-two miles to Taunton, a small but pretty and rising town. After dining at the hotel we started at three o'clock by the railroad train for Mansfield, a much smaller place, distant about eleven miles. Here we shifted into other cars for Providence, at which we arrived about six o'clock; and passing on by another line of cars, we went by

the railroad to Stonington, a distance of forty-seven miles, in two hours and a half, reaching the latter place at half past eight in the evening. As the moon was near the full and was unusually bright, and as the cars were commodious and well warmed by stoves in each, our journey was extremely pleasant, and the society agreeable.

At Stonington we embarked in the Narraganset steam-vessel for New-York; and, though late in the season, we found a large number of passengers, among whom were as many ladies as gentlemen. The vessel was of the largest class, containing more than 200 separate berths or bed-places, and having the means of making up more than 300 beds, including the sofas and benches. The saloons were certainly magnificent, the tables amply supplied, and everything that could make the passengers comfortable seemed to be carefully attended to.

During the night we had a heavy fall of snow. In consequence of the thickness of the atmosphere, the greatest caution became necessary, and we accordingly proceeded at a slow rate, often stopping altogether for a few minutes, and continually sounding with the lead on both sides.

At daylight, however, we found ourselves close to the entrance of New-York, with the northeastern portion of the city on our right, and the extreme end of Brooklyn on our left; and after passing the Navy-yard, and getting among a crowd of vessels of every class, which were thickly ranged on both sides, we rounded the Battery Point of New-York, and by eight o'clock were safely alongside the wharf, from which we went directly to the American Hotel, and, finding rooms there, made it our abode for the short period of our intended stay in the city.

This terminated our travels through the Northern States of the Union, embracing the principal cities and towns in each; and, on casting a retrospective glance over the places visited and subjects described, it will be admitted that they are as varied and comprehensive as the limits of the work would contain.

To different classes of readers who may honour these volumes with their perusal, various objections to separate parts of them will no doubt arise; for the tastes of mankind are as diversified as their temperaments, and unless all could be educated in the same school, and placed under the same circumstances—study the same subjects, and have the same objects in view—it would be chimerical to expect uniformity of taste and judgment on any literary production.

The political reader would have liked, perhaps, more extensive developments of the principles of republican government, and more detailed expositions of its practical working. The financier would

have gladly exchanged this for more information respecting the condition and solvency of the state stocks and corporate banks. The geologist, mineralogist, and botanist would hold both politics and finance to be inferior in interest to descriptions of Nature in the several departments named. The mercantile reader would think these all misplaced, if they occupied a more prominent portion than the information he seeks, as to the extent and nature of the exports and imports, tonnage of shipping employed, tariffs, duties, markets, prices current, &c. The philanthropist will perhaps think that more might have been said on the subject of slavery, on prison discipline, education, and benevolent institutions. The churchman and dissenter will each respectively regard the subjects of endowments for religious establishments, and the comparative merits of this and the voluntary system as of sufficient importance to take precedence of every other. And the general reader, who seeks only for amusement, will most probably complain that so much space should have been given to all these topics, and so little devoted to matters of a more light and entertaining nature.

Amid all these conflicting claims, the utmost that any writer can hope for is to please that portion of the community who are reasonable enough to remember that if a book—professing to be at once historical, statistic, and descriptive—contains a sufficient amount of information on each of these branches to justify its title—and, in addition to this, something agreeable to their own tastes also—they should charitably consider that others require to be informed and gratified as well as themselves.

The remainder of our travels through the Continent of America embraced a visit to the Southern and Western States: from New-York to Charleston in South Carolina; thence to Mobile and New-Orleans, by a land-journey across the States of Georgia and Alabama to Louisiana; up the River Mississippi; across the mountains of Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, and over the ridge of the Alleghanies into Virginia; and afterward across the Cumberland range, through Pennsylvania to Pittsburgh, and by the Ohio to Cincinnati, Kentucky, St. Louis, and Missouri; across the prairies of Illinois to Lake Michigan; from thence to Mackinaw, Lake Huron, Detroit, Lake Erie, and Canada, including Toronto, Montreal, and Quebec; Pictou and Halifax, in Nova Scotia; St. John's and Frederickton, in New-Brunswick; across the boundary-line into Maine; and thence, by Bangor and Portland, to Boston and New-York. From this, the original port of our landing, we embarked in the ill-fated steamship *President*; and, after encountering a heavy gale, and being obliged to put back for want of fuel when nearly half way across the Atlantic, we completed in her the last voyage she ever made before the fatal one in which there is now too much reason to believe she has perished!

It is intended, during the present summer, to arrange and pre-

pare for the press a second series of this work, to embrace as much as the same extent of limits will admit, of the travels in the Southern States, which are less known than they deserve to be to the British public. And if the reception given to this portion shall be sufficiently encouraging to warrant the undertaking, it will probably be ready for publication about the autumn of the present year.

APPENDIX.—VOL. II.

No. I.

A CONTRIBUTION FOR THE COMMEMORATION OF THE FOURTH OF JULY, 1838.

(Referred to at page 54.)

HAIL ! day of joy ! whose glad return
Hears a united nation's voice,
"In thoughts that breathe and words that burn,"
Bid millions of free hearts rejoice.

Thy dawning sun look'd forth upon
A nation struggling to be free ;
But, ere the setting orb went down,
They had achieved their liberty.

And now, where'er old Ocean laves
Earth's coasts, or bathes her capes and isles,
The star-bespangled banner waves
O'er a bright day of joy and smiles.

Immortal honour to the brave,
Whose hands first sign'd the bold decree ;
Who rush'd their sinking land to save,
And vow'd to perish or be free.

But oh ! while boisterous revelry
Shall swell the loud, triumphant song,
And mirth, and 'witching minstrelsy,
Bear the unconscious mind along,

Let those who love their country most
Lift up their warning voices high,
And ask, of Freedom ere they boast,
Is there no other slavery ?

No other tyrant, whose dark rod
Rules o'er the land with fearful sway,
Debasing man, defying God,
E'en on this, sacred Freedom's day ?

Then, patriots ! wheresoe'er ye be,
With one accord join heart and hand,
To bid the enslaved from hence be free,
And chase the tyrant from the land.

"Who is the tyrant ? who the slave ?
A thousand anxious voices cry :
Alas ! the tenants of the grave,
Could they but rise, might best reply.

The tyrant is—**DESTROYING DRINK**,
Who chains his slaves in links of fire ;
The slave is he whose manhood sinks
Beneath his withering sceptre dire.

This tyrant carries in his train
Each baleful passion's poisonous breath,
Crime, Misery, Want, Despair, and Pain,
Disease, Insanity, and Death.

His victims perish first on earth,
 In loathsomeness and foul decay :
 And oh ! dread thought for hours of mirth—
 They perish in eternity !
 Will they who love their native land
 See such a tyrant's rule upborne,
 Nor stretch at once their patriot hand
 To hurl him from his despot throne ?
 It cannot be ! Man's nobler part
 Yearns for his fellow-suffering man ;
 Haste, then, each patriot, Christian heart,
 The revolution has begun !
 Oh ! for a Washington's pure name,
 A Franklin's mind, a Hancock's zeal,
 A Henry's eloquence, whose flame
 Should kindle in their country's weal.
 Ten thousand thousand glowing tongues,
 To form to-day a sacred band,
 In every hall to bid their songs
 Swell high for temperance through the land.
 For though to Washington was given
 The glorious task this land to free,
 When, arm'd by Justice, bless'd by Heaven,
 He won a nation's liberty ;
 To him whose tongue or pen shall raise
 The second purifying fire,
 To purge it of its worst disease,
 Till fell Intemperance shall expire ,
 To him shall millions yet unborn
 Lift up the hymn of grateful praise,
 And on this dawn of Freedom's morn,
 Honour him with approving lays.
 And if, from heaven's high azure zone,
 Where Washington's pure spirit rests,
 His view on earth should e'er look down,
 To see his country free and bless'd,
 How would his now still purer soul
 Turn with intensest grief and pain,
 From where Intemperance' torrents roll
 O'er this fair land her foulest stain.
 Yes ! and should now a patriot rise
 To save his country from this flood,
 Washington's spirit, from the skies,
 Would hail him as the great, the good.

J. S. BUCKINGHAM.

Albany, July 4, 1838.

No. II.

(From the *New-York American*, July 20, 1838.)

See page 96.

LOBBYING.—We copy from the *Journal of Commerce* the report of a trial, wherein the plaintiff was one of those shameless persons known at Albany, and, as it would seem, at Trenton, as members of the lobby, or of the third House, and who sues for his compensation for "operating" upon members of the Legislature.

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It is the first time, so far as we remember, that an attempt was ever made to enforce, through a court of justice, contracts of such a nature; and we are glad to believe, from the failure of this, that there will be no future attempts; and we say this without meaning to applaud or approve the morality of the defence, which, after accepting services equivocal in their kind, pleads public morality in bar of stipulated payment.

Court of Common Pleas, July 18. Judge Ulshoeffer presiding.

Abraham S. Hillyer v. John Travers.

Lobbying.—This was an action for work and labour, or, in other words, for acting as agent in procuring the passage of a bill through the Trenton Legislature by means of what is called lobbying.

Counsel for the plaintiff stated that the defendant employed him, in the winter of 1837, as agent to obtain the passage of an act to incorporate the Bergen Port Company, and that for this service the plaintiff claimed 2000 dollars, being less than what he was fairly entitled to. The bill in question was passed, and the defendant was made president of the company.

The following are the items of the plaintiff's demand:

1837.	John Travers,	Dr. to A. T. Hillyer.	Dollars.
To work and labour from Jan. 1 to March 15, 1837, in procuring charter of Bergen Port Company			1500 00
To board at Trenton from Jan 1. to March 15, at two dollars per day			150 00
To money paid, laid out, and expended by plaintiff for defendant			250 00
To travelling expenses to and from New-York and Trenton			100 00
To expenses of family in New-York, agreed to be paid by defendant—			
11 weeks, at 20 dollars per week			220 00
			<hr/> 2220 00

In proof of the plaintiff's services and employment by the defendant, the deposition of a witness was read, which stated that the plaintiff had attended at Trenton during the whole time that the act was being passed; that he had been desired to do so by the defendant; and that he advocated the passing of the act, and obtained two or three votes for it in the lower House; that, while thus engaged, the plaintiff had treated the members of the Legislature to several bottles of Champagne; that the witness in question was himself similarly employed, and had received 100 shares of the stock for his services.

From the evidence of Benjamin Van Cleef, it appeared that the defendant had employed the plaintiff to facilitate the passage of the bill, and also that John Swartwout had offered the plaintiff 2500 dollars to procure the passage of a bill of incorporation for him; or, instead of the 2500 dollars, to give him 25 shares of stock. That the plaintiff was employed lobbying while the bill was going forward, and endeavoured to impress upon the members of the Legislature the great value such an incorporation would be to the state. The different members of the Legislature were also visited in order to ascertain how many of them were favourable to the bill, and those who were not were divided among the lobbyists, in order to be influenced to vote for it. The bill was lost the first time it was brought up from the lower House, but the plaintiff procured a sufficient number of members to vote for a reconsideration. At the period in question the Legislature entertained great distrust of such bills.

Mr. Van Cleef himself was also employed to facilitate the passage of the bill, and was to be compensated for his services by being appointed secretary, at a salary of 500 dollars for the first year. He was likewise to be paid 300 dollars per annum for editing a Democratic journal, which the parties who were getting the bill pledged themselves to establish, and he was also to have the liberty of exercising his profession, which, in addition to the other items, would bring him 1500 dollars per annum. The witness estimated the plaintiff's personal expenses at two dollars per day, and two dollars for board.

On the witness's cross-examination, he said that one of the means which the plaintiff used to facilitate the passage of the bill was by treating the members to Champagne and suppers, and that he gave a supper on the 22d February, while the

bill was pending. The defendant had promised to pay a tavern-keeper a bill which the plaintiff had incurred for 114 dollars.

The land in question, in relation to which the act of incorporation was passed, was purchased by the company for 160,000 dollars, and divided into 5000 shares of stock at 100 dollars per share, making 500,000 dollars. The shares were now 40 per cent. below par. Col. Travers, the defendant, is said to be worth 150,000 dollars.

The next evidence for the plaintiff was the deposition of

James C. Zabriskie, of New-Brunswick, N. J., who deposed that he was asked by Travers to engage in getting the bill passed, but he refused. Travers said the witness might dictate his own terms, and if he wanted means to operate at Trenton, any reasonable amount would be furnished him.

Q. What would be a reasonable amount to operate with at Trenton in such a case?

A. I should have required 500 dollars to operate with.

Cross-examined.—Q. When you say you would require 500 dollars to operate with in such a case, what do you mean by that?

A. I mean I should have applied it in paying for wine and terrapin suppers, as that is about as efficient a mode of operating as I know of.

Q. Do you mean by that answer wine and terrapin suppers for the members of the Legislature?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. What was the general character of Mr. Hillyer's services?

A. He operated among the members generally and particularly; Mr. Hillyer was esteemed one of the best lobby agents that ever appeared at Trenton for the last eight years. I do not know what Mr. Hillyer's particular mode of operation was in this case. I know the efficient mode of operation was the same in every case, by calling on the members, and impressing on them favourably in regard to the measure before them; sometimes making the worse appear the better reason, and giving the members explanatory suppers. Such was Mr. Hillyer's general mode of operation.

On behalf of the defendant, counsel moved for a nonsuit, on the ground that the entire contract was grounded on corruption, and was therefore void.

The court decided that the case should go to the jury.

The defendant then produced in evidence a receipt from the plaintiff to the defendant, dated the 13th of March, for 100 dollars, on account of the Bergen Port Company, which receipt counsel contended was in full for all compensation which he was entitled to. The defendant offered no other evidence.

The court charged the jury. This was an action to recover compensation for the plaintiff's agency in getting a bill passed by the Legislature at Trenton.

It appears that the plaintiff has been paid 100 dollars by the defendant on the 13th of March, and that the defendant likewise agreed to pay 114 dollars more for the plaintiff's board. It may be, and is probable, that the defendant is not bound by that agreement, as it was entered into after the debt was contracted, and that the landlord cannot make the defendant pay it. But it is evidence going to show that the defendant employed the plaintiff.

The first question is, Is there sufficient evidence to prove that the defendant employed the plaintiff? The latter is bound to prove that the defendant employed him to go to Trenton. If you are satisfied that the defendant did not employ the plaintiff, he cannot recover on that ground.

The next question is, Was the employment of the plaintiff by the defendant for an honest purpose, or for procuring dishonest legislation? If the defendant employed the plaintiff for an honest purpose, then there can be no difficulty in the way of recovering; but if he was employed for a dishonest purpose, then he cannot recover.

The evidence as to the dishonesty of purpose of the two parties in the present transaction stands about equal. And the rule of law on this part of the question is, that the law does not extend protection to either party. If they have both made an agreement for a dishonest purpose, they must stand as they are. The law will not allow either of them to coerce the other. If Travers had paid the plaintiff, he could not recover it back; and if the plaintiff contracted with Travers, and has not been paid, he cannot make him pay it.

It would be going too far to say that every agreement for compensation in cases like the present one is void. An agreement to compensate an attorney who goes before the Legislature, or a committee of it, to advocate the passage of a bill, would

entitle him to recover compensation. So also an agreement with an agent, who makes necessary explanations before the Legislature, has nothing in it adverse to public policy; and there is no reason why any honest man should not employ a person to do so.

But there is a wide difference between that and an agency for using public or private influence personally on the members of a Legislature, in order to induce them to act from motives of private interest instead of public good. Any agreement for such an agency is void. Any agreement to use the influence of relations or others, or to use private influence of any sort, would be corrupt, and all agreements of such a kind are consequently void.

The reason for this distinction is manifest. If it was not so, the Legislature would be surrounded by men seeking for private objects, which concerned not the public good, but their own private interests only; and members of the Legislature would be harassed into giving their votes on the grounds of personal obligations or private friendship.

A legislator selected by the people to discharge a public trust, ought to discharge it independently and honestly; but the legislator who votes from private influence, acts dishonestly and corruptly. And every effort to obtain votes through private influence is adverse to public policy and legislative purity, and at variance with every sense of propriety.

It is therefore scarcely necessary to observe that, to procure votes by means of suppers, or harassing legislators by making applications to them, is dishonest in the extreme, and that no person can recover compensation for it.

This is perhaps the first case in which a party has disclosed all the secrets of lobbying, when bringing an action against the person who has employed him. I have given you my views as to the law of the case, but am not disposed to take it for granted as to what your feelings are in regard to the facts. With these remarks, I hope you will give a fair consideration to the evidence; and while, on the one hand, if you think that the plaintiff was employed for an honest purpose, you will not refuse him compensation; yet if, on the other hand, he was employed to bring private influence to bear on the members of the Legislature, then you will not give him any compensation whatever.

The jury retired for nearly four hours, and brought in a verdict for the defendant.

No. III.

TO NIAGARA.

Written at the first sight of its Falls, August 12th, 1838.

[See page 139.]

Hail! Sovereign of the World of Floods! whose majesty and might
First dazzle, then enrapture, then o'erawe the aching sight;
The pomp of kings and emperors, in every clime and zone,
Grows dim beneath the splendours of thy glorious watery throne.

No fleets can stop thy progress, no armies bid thee stay,
But onward—onward—onward, thy march still holds its way;
The rising mist that veils thee, as thine herald, goes before,
And the music that proclaims thee is the thundering cataract's roar.

Thy diadem is an emerald green, of the clearest, purest hue,
Set round with waves of snow-white foam, and spray of feathery dew:
While tresses of the brightest pearls float o'er thine ample sheet,
And the rainbow lays its gorgeous gems in tribute at thy feet.

Thy reign is of the ancient days, thy sceptre from on high,
Thy birth was when the morning stars together sang with joy;
The sun, the moon, and all the orbs that shine upon thee now,
Saw the first wreath of glory which entwined thine infant brow.

And from that hour to this, in which I gaze upon thy stream,
From age to age, in winter's frost, or summer's sultry beam,

By day, by night, without a pause, thy waves, with loud acclaim,
In ceaseless sounds have still proclaim'd the Great Eternal's name!

For whether on thy forest banks the Indian of the wood,
Or, since his days, the red man's foe, on his fatherland have stood,
Whoe'er has seen thine incense rise, or heard thy torrent's roar,
Must have bent before the God of all! to worship and adore.

Accept, then, O! Supremely Great! O! Infinite! O! God!
From this primeval altar—the green and virgin sod—
The humble homage that my soul in gratitude would pay
To Thee! whose shield has guarded me through all my wandering way.

For if the ocean be as naught in the hollow of thine hand,
And the stars of the bright firmament, in thy balance, grains of sand,
If Niagara's rolling flood seem great, to us who lowly bow,
O! Great Creator of the whole! how passing great art Thou!

Yet, though thy power is greater than the finite mind may scan,
Still greater is thy mercy, shown to weak, dependant man:
For him thou cloth'st the fertile fields with herb, and fruit, and seed,
For him the woods, the lakes, the seas, supply his hourly need.

Around—on high—or far or near—the universal whole
Proclaims thy glory, as the orbs in their fix'd courses roll;
And from Creation's grateful voice the hymn ascends above,
While Heaven re-echoes back to Earth the chorus "God is Love."

J. S. BUCKINGHAM.

No. IV.

FIRST FATAL GIFT OF THE WHITES TO THE INDIANS.

By Mrs. SIOURNEY.

[See p. 184.]

They come! they come! the pallid race,
The red men gather from the chase,
From forest shade and light canoe,
They throng that "water bird" to view,
Whose mighty wings that near the shore,
They deem their Great Manitto bore.

Frank is their welcome to the band,
The ready smile, the open hand,
The proffer'd fruits with gladness press'd,
The purple plum with downy vest,
The clustering grape, the corn sheaf's gold,
The untaught greeting, warm and bold.

But by what gift, what token strong,
Did Europe's sons, renown'd in song,
Mark their first visit to the child
Of simple faith and daring wild?
A cup! a cup! but who may tell
What deadly dregs within it swell?
The sickening eye, the burning cheek,
Its fearful magic strangely speak;
And on their turf of verdant dye,
See! they who taste it helpless lie,
Type of the woes that soon must sweep

Their blasted race away,
Down to oblivion dark and deep,
With none their hopeless wrongs to weep,
Or mourn their sad decay.

Yes! when the Old World, hasting, press'd
 Her friendship on the infant West,
 The boon she brought, the pledge she gavè,
 Was poison and a drunkard's grave.
 But thou, fair city, throned in pride,
 Queen of the Hudson's silver tide,*
 Well hast thou, by thy deeds, effaced
 This stain upon thine annals traced;
 Well hast thou, by thy zeal to aid
 Temperance, thine early trespass paid;
 And as the kneeling form that press'd
 A Saviour's tear-laved feet was bless'd,
 So hast thou shown, with victor sway,
 That love which washes sin away!

No. V.

INSCRIPTION IN THE CHURCH OF CANANDAIGUA, TO THE MEMORY OF PATRICK COLQUHOUN.

Integer vitæ scelerisque purus.

[See page 232.]

Sacred to the memory of
 PATRICK COLQUHOUN, Esq., LL.D.,
 who held Lands in this State,
 and rose to manhood in America.

He was born at Dumbarton, in Scotland,
 14th of March, 1745.

He was elected for three successive years
 Lord Provost of Glasgow,

Where he founded the Chamber of Commerce,
 The Royal Exchange Tontine,

And essentially promoted the Trade and Manufactures of Scotland,
 as evinced by numerous testimonies.

He was Deputy-Lieutenant, and 25 years Justice of the Peace
 for Middlesex and the adjoining Counties,
 during which period he originated and carried into effect

The Thames Police,
 thereby producing a large increase of Revenue
 to the Government,
 great savings to the West India Planters,
 and much benefit to the Merchants
 of the Port of London.

He suggested,
 and actively and successfully promoted,
 various plans for the prevention of crime,
 for the supply of food during scarcities,
 for the amelioration of the condition of the poor,
 and for the education of children.

He was the author of the treatises
 On the Police of the Metropolis and River Thames,
 On the Wealth, Power, and Resources
 of the British Empire,

And of various other Works on
 Criminal Jurisprudence, Political Economy, and
 On the Commerce and Manufactures of Great Britain.
 His mind was fertile in conception,

* The city of New-York, the earliest and most zealous in promoting the Temperance Reformation.

Kind and benevolent in disposition,
 Bold and persevering
 in execution.

He died on the 25th of April, 1820,
 after a laborious life of 76 years,
 alike honourable to himself
 and useful to
 Society.

No. VI.

ODE FOR THE SECOND CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION OF THE SET-
 TLEMENT OF BOSTON, SEPT. 17, 1830.

BY THE REV. JOHN PIERPONT.

[See page 329.]

Break forth in song, ye trees,
 As through your tops the breeze
 Sweeps from the sea !
 For on its rushing wings
 To your cool shades and springs
 That breeze a people brings,
 Exiled, though free.

Ye sister hills, lay down
 Of ancient oaks your crown
 In homage due ;
 These are the great of earth ;
 Great, not by kingly birth,
 Great in their well-proved worth,
 Firm hearts and true.

These are the living lights
 That from your bold green heights
 Shall shine afar,
 Till they who name the name
 Of FREEDOM towards the flame
 Come, as the Magi came
 Towards Bethlehem's star.

Gone are the great and good
 Who here in peril stood
 And raised their hymn.
 Peace to the reverend dead !
 The light that on their head
 Two hundred years have shed,
 Shall ne'er grow dim.

Ye temples, that to God
 Rise where our fathers trod,
 Guard well your trust !
 The faith that dared the sea,
 The truth that made them free,
 Their cherish'd purity,
 Their garner'd dust.

Thou High and Holy One,
 Whose care for sire and son
 All nature fills,
 While day shall break and close,
 While night her crescent shows,
 O let thy light repose
 On these our hills.

No. VII.

HYMN ON THE CONSECRATION OF MOUNT AUBURN CEMETERY,
SEPT. 24, 1831.

BY JOHN PIERPONT.

[See page 380.]

To thee, O God, in humble trust,
Our hearts their grateful incense burn,
For this thy word, "Thou art of dust,
And unto dust shalt thou return."

For what were life, life's work all done,
The hopes, joys, loves, that cling to clay,
All, all departed, one by one,
And yet life's load borne on for aye!

Decay! decay! 'tis stamp'd on all!
All bloom, in flower and flesh, must fade;
Ye whispering trees, when we shall fall,
Be our long sleep beneath your shade!

Here to thy bosom, Mother Earth,
Take back in peace what thou hast given;
And all that is of heavenly birth,
O God, in peace recall to heaven!

No. VIII.

ODE FOR THE FUNERAL OF DR. SPURZHEIM.

BOSTON, 17th Nov., 1832.

[See page 384.]

Stranger, there is bending o'er thee
Many an eye with sorrow wet:
All our stricken hearts deplore thee;
Who that knew thee can forget?
Who forget what thou hast spoken?
Who thine eye, thy noble frame?
But that golden bowl is broken
In the greatness of thy fame.

Autumn's leaves shall fall and wither
On the spot where thou shalt rest;
'Tis in love we bear thee thither,
To thy mourning mother's breast.
For the stores of science brought us,
For the charm thy goodness gave,
For the lessons thou hast taught us,
Can we give thee but a grave?

Nature's priest, how true and fervent
Was thy worship at her shrine!
Friend of man, of God the servant,
Advocate of truths divine,
Taught and charm'd, as by no other,
We have been, and hoped to be;
But, while waiting round thee, brother,
For thy light, 'tis dark with thee!

Dark with thee! No: thy Creator,
 All whose creatures and whose laws
 Thou didst love, will give thee greater
 Light than earth's as earth withdraws.
 To thy God thy godlike spirit
 Back we give in filial trust;
 Thy cold clay, we grieve to bear it
 To its chamber, but we must.

JOHN PIERPONT.

No. IX.

HYMN FOR THE MEETING ON BEHALF OF THE SAILOR'S HOME.

(*From the Boston Evening Gazette.*)

[See page 414.]

MARINER'S HOUSE.—At the request of the "Seaman's Aid Society," Mr. BUCKINGHAM delivered a very interesting address to a numerous and highly respectable audience on Friday evening, at the ODEON, in aid of the "Mariner's House." He was listened to with almost breathless attention for nearly an hour and a half, while he spoke of the incidents of a sailor's life in a peculiarly happy manner. The Rev. Mr. TAYLOR also addressed the audience in his usual energetic manner. The meeting was an interesting one, and will not soon be forgotten by those who were so fortunate as to be present. The receipts were about 500 dollars. The following hymn, written for the occasion by the Rev. JOHN PIERPONT, was sung by the choir.

Toss'd on the billows of the main,
 And doom'd from zone to zone to roam,
 The seaman toil'd for others' gain,
 But, for himself, he had no home.
 No father's door was open flung
 For him, "just rescued from the wreck,"
 No sister clasp'd her arms, and hung
 In speechless joy around his neck;
 But he was cast upon a world
 More dangerous than the ocean's roar,
 When o'er his bark the surges curl'd,
 And drove it on a leeward shore.
 He had no home; and so had He
 Who, as *his* bark began to fill,
 Said to the Lake of Galilee,
 When lash'd by tempests, "Peace! be still!"
 Of winds and dashing waves the sport,
 By perils, while at sea, beset,
 The sailor found himself, in port,
 Exposed to greater perils yet.
 False brethren were his perils there,
 And perils by his countrymen,
 And perils by the sirens fair
 That lured him to the robber's den.
 But now a brother stands instead,
 With open arms to take him in;
 And spreads a banquet and a bed
 That may be tasted without sin.
 Yes! the poor seaman hath a Home!
 We thank thee, God, for what we see;
 Let him no more mid perils roam,
 But come at once to *it* and *THEE*.

No X.

INSCRIPTION ON THE VASSAL MONUMENT, IN THE KING'S CHAPEL,
AT BOSTON.

[See p. 411.]

Sacred to the memory of
 SAMUEL VASSAL, Esq., of LONDON, Merchant,
 one of the original proprietors of the lands
 of this country :
 a steady and undaunted
 Asserter of the Liberties of ENGLAND
 in 1628.

He was the first who boldly refused to submit to the Tax of
 Tonnage and Poundage,
 an unconstitutional claim of the Crown
 arbitrarily imposed :

For which (to the ruin of his family)
 his goods were seized and his person imprisoned by the
 Star Chamber Court.

He was chosen to represent the City of
 LONDON

In two successive Parliaments, which met April 13 and November 3,
 1640.

The Parliament, in July, 1641, voted him
 £10,445 12s. 2d.

for his damages, and resolved
 that he should be further considered
 for his personal sufferings ;

But the rage of the times, and the neglect of
 proper applications since,
 have left to his Family only the honour of that
 Vote and Resolution.

He was one of the largest Subscribers
 to raise money

against the Rebels in Ireland.

All these facts may be seen in the Journal of the
 House of Commons.

He was the son of the gallant

JOHN VASSAL,

who in 1588,

at his own expense, fitted out and commanded two
 Ships of War,

with which he joined the Royal Navy,
 to oppose

THE SPANISH ARMADA.

This Monument was erected by his Great-grandson
 FLORENTIUS VASSAL, Esq.,
 of the Island of Jamaica, now residing in England,
 May, 1766.

No. XI.

LINES ON THE LICENSE LAWS FOR SELLING THE POISON OF
ARDENT SPIRITS.

BY THE REV. JOHN PIERPONT.

[See page 414.]

"We license thee for so much gold,"
 Ss'id they who fill'd St. Peter's chair,
 To put away the wife who's old,
 And take the one that's young and fair;
 For public good requires a dome,
 To swell, like heaven's, for us at Rome."

For so much gold we licensed thee
 (So say our laws) a draught to sell,
 That bows the strong, enslaves the free,
 And opens wide the gates of hell:
 For public good requires that some,
 Since many die, should live by rum."

Ye civil fathers! while the foes
 Of this destroyer seize their swords,
 And Heaven's own hail is in the blows
 They're dealing, will ye cut the cord
 That round the falling fiend they draw,
 And o'er him hold your shield of law?

And will ye give to man a bill,
 Divorcing him from Heaven's high sway?
 And while God says, "Thou shalt not kill,"
 Say ye, "For gold ye may—ye may?"
 Compare the body with the soul!
 Compare the bullet with the bowl!

In which is felt the fiercest blast
 Of the destroying angel's breath?
 Which binds the victim the more fast?
 Which kills him with the deadlier death?
 Will ye the felon fox restrain,
 And yet take off the tiger's chain?

The living to the rotting dead
 The God-contemning Tuscan tied,
 Till by the way, or on his bed,
 The poor corpse-carrier dropp'd and died,
 Lash'd hand in hand and face to face,
 In fatal and in loathed embrace.

Less cutting, think ye, is the thong
 That to a breasting corpse, for life!
 Lashes in torture loathed and long,
 The drunkard's child—the drunkard's wife.
 To clasp that clay, to breathe that breath,
 And no escape? Oh, that is death!

Are ye not fathers? When your sons
 Look to you for your daily bread,
 Dare ye, in mockery, load with stones
 The table that for them ye spread?
 How can ye hope your sons will live,
 If ye for fish a serpent give?

O holy God, let light divine
 Break forth more broadly from above,
 Till we conform our laws to thine—
 The perfect law of truth and love;
 For truth and love alone can save
 The children from a hopeless grave.

No. XII.

PARTING Hymn, sung at the Episcopal Church of New-Bedford, after the Farewell
 Sermon of the Rev. Mr. Bent, Sunday, December, 1838.

[See page 445.]

GRACIOUS FATHER! now thy blessing
 Grant on this our parting hour;
 Truth on every heart impressing,
 By the Holy Spirit's power.
 Long the sacred tie has bound us,
 Gladly teaching, gladly taught;
 While each passing year around us
 Still a stronger chain has wrought.

Oft have we, with common pleasure,
 Worshipp'd at this holy shrine;
 Oft rejoicing in the treasure,
 Read and heard the Word divine.
 Oft in scenes of peace and gladness,
 Common joy our hearts have felt;
 Oft mid pains, and grief, and sadness,
 We with common tears have knelt.

But, alas! the bond is broken,
 Pastor and his flock must part;
 Now the farewell must be spoken,
 Saddening each and every heart.
 Precious moments, past forever,
 Sweet communion, quickly gone;
 But if Thou the tie dost sever,
 Father, let thy will be done!

Earth is fading like a vision,
 All things tend to swift decay;
 Death, as if in cold derision,
 Marks the dearest for his prey.
 "*But the word of God endureth,*"
 Chance and change it both disdain;
 And this blessed word ensureth,
 Faithful souls shall meet again.

Part we, then, on God's word leaning,
 Praying thus to meet above;
 From the Gospel promise gleaning
 Visions of undying love.
 There no cloud shall shade our meeting,
 There no tears our grief shall tell;
 There no fear shall chill our greeting,
 There no heart shall sigh—FAREWELL.

No. XIII.

TABLETS TO THE MEMORY OF SEAMEN, IN THE MARINERS'
CHURCH, NEW-BEDFORD.

[See p. 448.]

THE CREW OF THE HIBERNIA

ERECTED THIS TOKEN OF RESPECT TO THEIR SHIPMATE,

DANIEL H. SHIRES,

OF NEW-YORK, AGED 22 YEARS,

WHO WAS LOST OVERBOARD, AUGUST 11th, 1835.

Suddenly the shaft of death
Flew to stop his vital breath—
Sunk him to his coral bed,
Till the Sea gives up her dead.
Cherish'd be his memory pure,
While this marble shall endure.

IN MEMORY OF JOHN GLOVER,*

OF LONDON, AGED 22 YEARS, WHO WAS LOST OVERBOARD FROM THE SHIP
CHINA, ON THE 27th OF JANUARY, 1835.

This sacred cenotaph is rear'd
By those who shared his grief and joy ;
To them his memory is endear'd
By ties which death cannot destroy.
He sank beneath the deep blue wave,
Nor could their efforts save him there :
Those who may meet a watery grave,
Should for a sudden death prepare.

No. XIV.

LINES ON THE PLYMOUTH ROCK.

BY MRS. L. H. SIGOURNEY.

[See page 459.]

A bark is moor'd below,
Mid the tossings of the bay ;
What seeks it, where the hunters' bow
Hath evermore held sway ?
They stand on Plymouth Rock,
A feeble pilgrim band ;
Why bide they thus the wintry shock,
In a wild stranger land !
Their welcome who can tell,
Save the bitter blast that blew,
And the snows that coldly fell
Ere their lowly cabins grew ?

* His shipmates requested me to give them a funeral discourse on the occasion, and all the sailors in port, and many of the ladies of the Port Society and others attended. The chapel was crowded in every part, and a deep interest was taken on the occasion ; his being an Englishman was no impediment to his receiving as much honour and sympathy as though he had been an American by birth.
—ENOCH MUDOK, *Chaplain of the Bethel Church.*

An axe amid the trees—
 'The rugged hearthstone flames—
 Yon dreary shapeless huts—are these
 For England's high-born dames!
 Hark! to the war-whoop wild:
 Look! 'tis the Indian's crest;
 The pilgrim mother clasps her child,
 And girds the warrior's breast.
 No corn upon the vale,
 No vessel o'er the wave;
 What cheers them when their cheek is pale,
 What lights the Indian's grave?
 Old Harvard hath a voice
 Within its classic halls,
 A whisper from their hallow'd dust
 Who rear'd its ancient walls;
 Mid all their weary toil,
 Mid all their wasting wo,
 They cast an acorn in the soil
 For that lordly oak to grow.
 Recount their deeds of yore,
 Sons of those glorious sires,
 And kindle on this sacred shore,
 Bold Freedom's beacon fires:
 And praise ye Him, whose hand
 Sustain'd them with his grace,
 And make this Rock, whereon ye stand,
 The Mecca of their race.

No. XV.

THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

By JOHN PIERPONT.

[See page 459.]

The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers at Plymouth took place December, 1620.
 These lines were written in celebration of that event by the Pilgrim Society of Massachusetts, in December, 1824.

The Pilgrim Fathers—where are they?
 The waves that brought them o'er
 Still roll in the bay, and throw their spray
 As they break along the shore:
 Still roll in the bay, as they roll'd that day,
 When the Mayflower moor'd below,
 When the sea around was black with storms,
 And white the shore with snow.
 The mists, that wrapp'd the pilgrim's sleep,
 Still brood upon the tide;
 And his rocks still keep their watch by the deep,
 To stay its waves of pride.
 But the snow-white sail that he spread to the gale
 When the heavens look'd dark, is gone;
 As an angel's wing through an opening cloud
 Is seen, and then withdrawn.
 The Pilgrim exile—sainted name!
 The hill, whose icy brow
 Rejoiced when he came, in the morning's flame,
 In the morning's flame burns now;

And the moon's cold light, as it lay that night,
On the hillside and the sea,
Still lies where he laid his houseless head,
But the Pilgrim—where is he?

The Pilgrim Fathers are at rest :
When summer's throned on high,
And the world's warm breast is in verdure dress'd,
Go stand on the hill where they lie.
The earliest ray of the golden day
On that hallow'd spot is cast ;
And the evening sun, as he leaves the world,
Looks kindly on that spot last.

The Pilgrim spirit has not fled :
It walks in noon's broad light,
And it watches the bed of the glorious dead,
With the holy stars by night.
It watches the bed of the brave who have bled,
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Till the waves of the bay, where the Mayflower lay,
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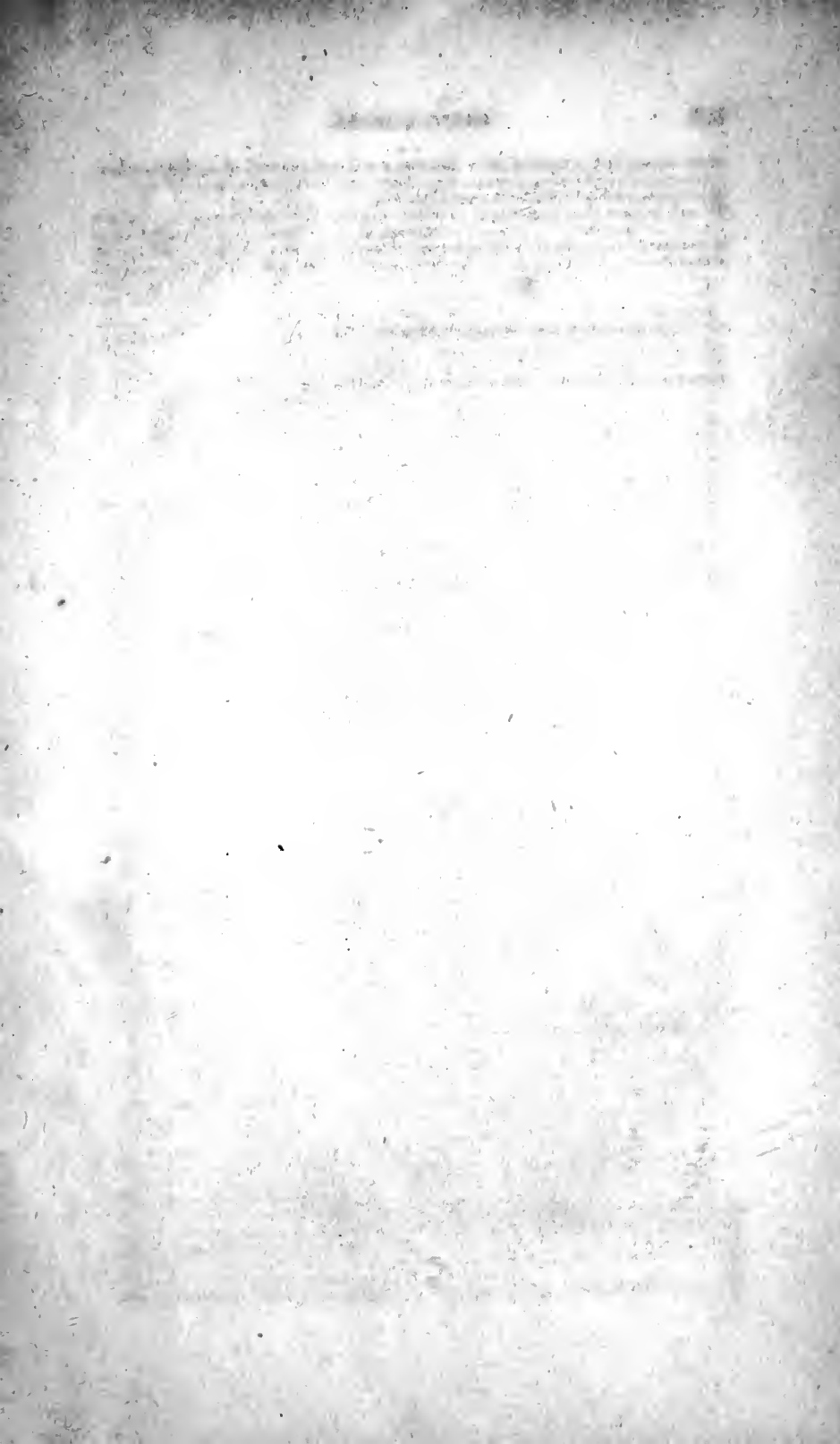
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